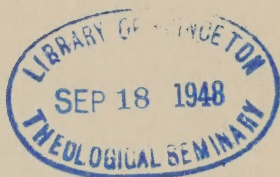


AN INTRODUCTION
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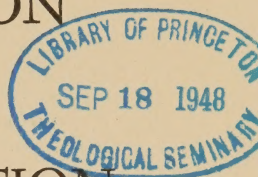


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AN INTRODUCTION
TO
AMERICAN EDUCATION



By
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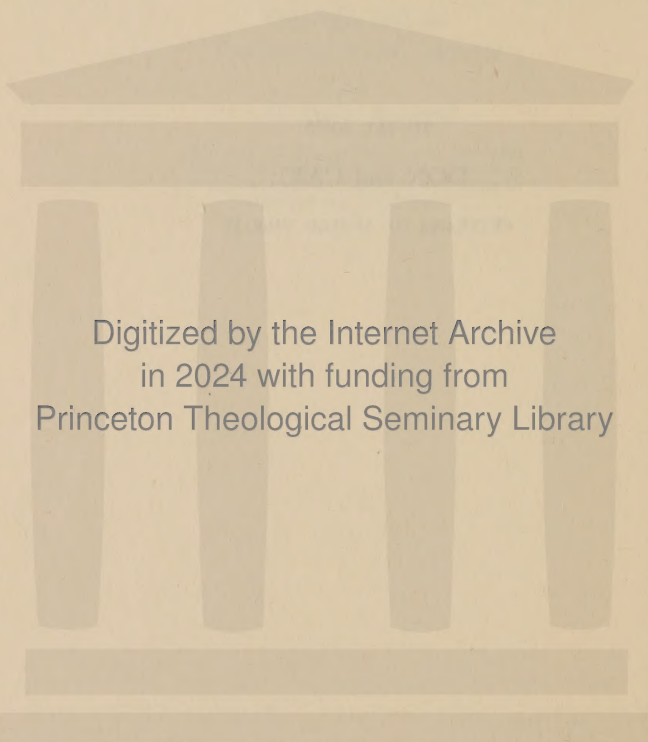
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TO MY SONS

DON and CARL

VETERANS OF WORLD WAR II



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PREFACE

This book is designed, primarily, as a text for the introductory course in education required of all prospective teachers. Studies by representative educators indicate conclusively that the first course in education should stress guidance and orientation of the prospective teacher. The content of this book is in harmony with the recommendations of these studies.

In writing the book, however, the author has kept in mind other types of readers, in order that the book may have an even broader field of usefulness: (1) the liberal arts student who is trying to determine whether or not he should take up teaching as a career; (2) high school seniors and their counselors who need guidance material; (3) pre-service teachers who need to understand what they are observing in their first contacts with pupils; (4) in-service teachers who would like to keep abreast of various educational movements; and (5) enlightened school patrons, school board members, and Congress of Parents and Teachers officials throughout the land.

Part I is centered in *guidance*. An attempt is made to answer the many questions that will occur to the alert mind making an honest inquiry into the status of the teaching profession. The student is led to decide for himself whether teaching is the career in which he is most interested and whether it is the one for which he is best adapted. To aid him in making an intelligent decision, special attention is given to the pertinent and practical considerations often neglected in selecting an occupation, particularly questions of salary, advancement, tenure, leave, and retirement.

In Part II, which is largely devoted to *orientation*, the student is introduced to the American system of education. Considerable attention is given to the origins of our educational institutions, traditions, and practices, and a conscious effort made to sensitize the prospective teacher to the necessity for changes in

our educational system, when and where needed. This continuing growth and evolution is epitomized in the recent trends in American education, which receive due emphasis.

The author has put into this book those topics that need not be repeated in subsequent professional courses. Many technicalities are purposely avoided, and many topics commonly treated in introductory education texts are left for later study. The author has tried to avoid the weakness of cursory and superficial treatment and also the seeming pedantry of exhaustiveness.

Although deeply interested in the philosophy of American education, the author has purposely avoided bringing the healthy controversies and conflicts in that realm into this book. These matters are treated in great detail in a companion book, *The Philosophy of American Education*. Some teachers of courses in Principles of Education may wish to use both textbooks.

The author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to his editors, Dean Ernest W. Tiegs and Professor Louis P. Thorpe of the University of Southern California, for their criticisms and suggestions. Grateful acknowledgment is also made to President A. Ray Olpin and the Regents of the University of Utah for their courtesy in granting the author leave of absence for the purpose of completing the book, and to Dean Osman R. Hull and his associates of the School of Education faculty at the University of Southern California, where the final work was done, for their many kindnesses. Lastly, for all they have taught him, the author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to his former students at the University of Utah, the University of Cincinnati, the George Washington University, the University of Washington, the San Francisco State College, the University of California at Los Angeles, and the University of Southern California.

JOHN T. WAHLQUIST

University of Utah
March 18, 1947

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PART I

INTRODUCTION TO TEACHING AS A VOCATION

CHAPTER 1

THE APPEAL OF TEACHING

A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops.—*The Education of Henry Adams* (Ch. 20)

The Teacher's Influence

Why is it that the great masses do not have greater appreciation for the services of teachers? Is it because the average person admires the display of power, material success, and spectacular performances? Or, is it because he cannot visualize the outcome of good teaching?

Probably the operation of both factors accounts for the low esteem in which teaching is held by the unthinking. All persons can see the influence of the lawyer—through his services fortunes are won or lost; laws are written or unwritten; persons are imprisoned or freed. Likewise with the physician—he has power over life and death; he ushers us into and out of the world. Probably easiest of all to recognize is the work of the engineer who builds structures that all can see and test.

But what of the teacher?

It takes a very discerning person to sense the teacher's influence. Only the rare mind realizes that the teacher is quietly and inconspicuously developing the attitudes, ideals, appreciations, and knowledge of future generations and, thus, determining the civilization of the tomorrows. Ordinarily, only experienced teachers fully appreciate the ease with which the creative masters manipulate the emotions, environments, and intelligence of pupils.

Unfortunately, once in a while a Hitler or a Mussolini senses the potency of education. If we wish to sense the teacher's influence, all we have to do is look into the despicable totalitarian states created within the last twenty years, and contrast their

mode of life with that of the inhabitants of enlightened nations still mindful of the teachings of the Master Teacher.

Undoubtedly, the great teachers have been persons of the widest and most permanent influence. Great as they were in their days, Alexander, Charlemagne, Napoleon, and other conquerors do not compare in influence with Jesus Christ, Buddha, Confucius, Zoroaster, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and other master teachers.

In objective terms of influence only, Will Durant listed the ten greatest thinkers as Confucius, Plato, Aristotle, Thomas Aquinas, Copernicus, Francis Bacon, Sir Isaac Newton, Voltaire, Kant, and Darwin. In the broadest sense all can be classified as teachers.¹

Nevertheless, it is not the few outstanding teachers who carry the burden of instructing the multitudes. Dr. Henry Van Dyke's version of the role of the ordinary teacher is a classic:

I sing the praise of the unknown teacher.

Great generals win campaigns, but it is the unknown soldier who wins the war.

Famous educators plan new systems of pedagogy, but it is the unknown teacher who delivers and guides the young. He lives in obscurity and contends with hardship. For him no trumpets blare, no chariots wait, no golden decorations are decreed. He keeps the watch along the borders of darkness and makes the attack on the trenches of ignorance and folly. Patient in his daily duty, he strives to conquer the evil powers which are the enemies of youth. He awakens sleeping spirits. He quickens the indolent, encourages the eager, and steadies the unstable. He communicates his own joy in learning, and shares with boys and girls the best treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which, in later years, will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward.

Knowledge may be gained from books; but the love of knowledge is transmitted only by personal contact. No one has deserved better of the Republic than the unknown teacher. No one is more worthy to be enrolled in a democratic aristocracy, "king of himself, and servant of mankind."²

¹ Will Durant, "The Ten Greatest Thinkers," *The American Magazine*. 103:7f. (March, 1927).

² Henry Van Dyke, "A Tribute to the Unknown Teacher," *The Mathematics Teacher*, 25:302 (May, 1932).

In the last analysis, it is the unheralded teacher who makes or breaks the state. It is the privilege of every teacher to make masterpieces out of common clay. Every teacher can have an immortality in the minds and lives of his pupils.

Real Achievement

Oftentimes the young, and sometimes those who are more experienced and should know better, hold to the notion that success is expressed only in terms of money. Such persons give scant consideration to the work of teaching, for teachers seldom amass fortunes. However, a little reflection will reveal the fact that many teachers of today will be remembered in the future when our present multimillionaires have long since been forgotten. History is replete with the names of outstanding men in all lines who did not make money: Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle; Thomas Aquinas and Martin Luther; Copernicus, Galileo, and Newton; Abraham Lincoln and Clara Barton; Fulton, Edison, and Marconi. Who remembers whether or not the following accumulated wealth: William Shakespeare, Matthew Arnold, Ralph Waldo Emerson? What about Horace Mann, Helen Keller, Booker T. Washington? What made these persons great? Obviously, their greatness is measured in terms of their contribution to mankind; real success may be measured quite apart from wealth. For too many persons money has become a synonym for success, when a little reflection will show that it is actually a poor index to real achievement.

The teacher has two chances for immortality. If he cannot achieve it in his own right, he may achieve it through a pupil. Undoubtedly one of the greatest satisfactions of the real teacher is the achievements of his pupils. A teacher does not live for himself, but for his pupils and for the truth which he teaches to them.

A man once told a professor at Oxford that he ought to be a member of Parliament. To this the professor replied: "Not so, my friend. I am doing better for England by training the men who make the laws." This reply aptly epitomizes the work of the teacher. The teacher's large work consists in establishing right standards of thinking and living.

These standards the boy takes with him into the activities of his manhood, whether in trade, or lawmaking, or professional life. The teacher is weaving the pattern of his life in the schoolroom and planting the seeds that will ultimately fructify civilization. Lessons are but the means to this larger end and such work may not be lightly esteemed. The school is the power-house, whose effects may be seen in the home, in the office, on the farm, in the court-room, and in the halls of legislation. The teacher is the effective agency that operates this power-house and causes it to make for better conditions in society as a whole. Only this large concept of the teacher's work is the true one, and every teacher has full warrant for the conviction that his work is both worthy and far-reaching.³

In speaking of the monetary rewards in teaching, George Herbert Palmer, the eminent Harvard philosopher, said :

. . . on the whole, teaching as a trade is poor and disappointing business.

When, however, it is entered as a profession, as a serious and difficult fine art, there are few employments more satisfying. All over the country thousands of men and women are following it with a passionate devotion which takes little account of the income received. A trade aims primarily at personal gain ; a profession at the exercise of powers beneficial to mankind. This prime aim of the one, it is true, often properly becomes a subordinate aim of the other. Professional men may even be said to offer wares of their own—cures, conversions, court victories, learning—much as traders do, and to receive in return a kind of reward. But the business of the lawyer, doctor, preacher, and teacher never squares itself by equivalent exchange. These men do not give so much for so much. They give in lump and they get in lump, without precise balance. The whole notion of bargain is inapplicable in a sphere where the gains of him who serves and him who is served coincide, and that is largely the case with the professions. Each of them furnishes its special opportunity for the use of powers which the professor takes delight in exercising. *Harvard College pays me for doing what I would gladly pay it for allowing me to do.* No professional man, then, thinks of giving according to measure. Once engaged, he gives his best, gives his personal interest, himself. His heart is in his work, and for this no equivalent is possible ; what is accepted is in the nature of a fee, gratuity, or consideration, which enables him who receives it to maintain a certain

³ Francis B. Pearson, *The Teacher*, New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1921, pp. 15-16.

expected mode of life. The real payment is the work itself, this and the chance to join with other members of the profession in guiding and enlarging the sphere of its activities.

The idea, sometimes advanced, that the professions might be ennobled by paying them powerfully, is fantastic. Their great attraction is their removal from sordid aims. More money should certainly be spent on several of them. Their members should be better protected against want, anxiety, neglect, and bad conditions of labor. To do his best work one needs not merely to live, but to live well. Yet in that increase of salaries which is urgently needed, care should be used not to allow the attention of the professional man to be diverted from what is important—the outgo of his work—and become fixed on what is merely incidental—his income. When a professor in one of our large universities, angered by the refusal of the president to raise his salary on his being called elsewhere, impatiently exclaimed, “Mr. President, you are banking on the devotion of us teachers, knowing that we do not willingly leave this place,” the president properly replied, “Certainly, and no college can be managed on any other principle.” Professional men are not so silly as to despise money; but after all, it is interest in their work, and not the thought of salary, which predominantly holds them.⁴

Real Satisfaction

Numerous essays have been written depicting the real rewards of teaching. One of the best is the following excerpt, from the writings of the late William Lyon Phelps, professor of English at Yale:

I LOVE TO TEACH

I do not know that I could make entirely clear to an outsider the pleasure I have in teaching. I had rather earn my living by teaching than in any other way. In my mind, teaching is not merely a life work, a profession, an occupation, a struggle; it is a passion. I love to teach.

I love to teach as a painter loves to paint, as a musician loves to play, as a singer loves to sing, as a strong man rejoices to run a race. Teaching is an art—an art so great and so difficult to master that a man or woman can spend a long life at it without realizing much more than his limitations and mistakes, and his distance from the ideal.

But the main aim of my happy days has been to become a good

⁴ George Herbert Palmer, from essay, “The Ideal Teacher,” reprinted in the Second Yearbook, *Future Teachers of America*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1942, pp. 49-50.

teacher, just as every architect wishes to be a good architect and every professional poet strives toward perfection.⁵

It is extremely difficult to list all of the intrinsic rewards that either keep exceptionally well-qualified individuals in the teaching profession or bring them back again after they have experienced more remunerative positions in other fields. Probably the intrinsic rewards are never the same for any two teachers. One teacher may glory in the contacts with youth. Another may note that the teacher's associates are among the most respected, that the teacher mingles freely with persons who are educated, refined, and responsible, that teachers as a body constitute one of the most desirable social groups. Another may get great satisfaction out of the achievements of his pupils and thus vicariously experience successes in far more positions and situations than even the most versatile individual could experience. Still another may revel in the opportunity that is the teacher's to continue his studies and to learn more and more. And yet another may sense the opportunities for personality and character development that come to every teacher. Others may enjoy the opportunities that come to teachers in the summer vacation for travel and study. Most teachers like to deal with *people* more than they like to deal with *things*. Probably most teachers sense all of these rewards to a greater or less degree.

Years ago, the following essay by John Dixon won first prize in a contest conducted by the Institute of Public Service, New York City, on the question, "Why I Like Teaching."

I like teaching because I like boys and girls, because I delight in having them about me, in talking with them, working with them, playing with them, and in possessing their confidence and affection.

I like teaching because the teacher works in an atmosphere of idealism, dealing with mind and heart, with ideas and ideals.

I like teaching because of the large freedom it gives. There is abundance of room for original planning and initiative in the conduct of the work itself, and an unusual time margin of evenings, week ends, and vacations in which to extend one's interests, personal and professional.

⁵ William Lyon Phelps, "I Love to Teach," quoted in the *NEA Handbook*, 1946, p. 111.

I like teaching because the relation of teacher to learner in whatever capacity is one of the most interesting and delightful in the world.

Teaching is attractive because it imposes a minimum of drudgery. Its day is not too long, and is so broken by intermissions, and so varied in its schedule of duties as to exclude undue weariness or monotony. The programme of each school day is a new and interesting adventure.

Teaching invites to constant growth and improvement. The teacher is in daily contact with books, magazines, libraries, and all of the most vital forces of thought and leadership, social and educational. It is work that stimulates ambition and enhances personal worth. There is no greater developer of character to be found.

Also, teaching includes a wide range of positions and interests, extending from kindergarten to university, covering every section where schools are maintained, and embracing every variety of effort, whether academic, artistic, industrial, commercial, agricultural, or professional.

There is no work in which men and women engage which more directly and fundamentally serves society and the state. Teaching is the biggest and best profession in the nation because it creates and moulds the nation's citizenship. It is the very foundation and mainstay of the national life.

And now at last the teacher's work is coming into its own. From now on the teacher will be adequately paid, and accorded the place which is rightfully his in the public regard.

The true teacher is, and may well be, proud of the title, for his work is akin to that of the Master Builder, the creation of a temple not made with hands.⁶

The Prestige of the Teacher

One source of satisfaction or annoyance that a person must consider in entering into any vocation is the esteem that other persons have for that line of work. In large measure, we can and should ignore the opinions of others if we are sure of ourselves and our convictions. Nevertheless, at times, every worker must pay at least passing attention to the attitudes of persons engaged in other vocations. Consequently, prospective teachers should be interested in the prestige of the teaching profession.

Hartmann conducted a clever study of the prestige of twenty-five occupations, including the college professor, the school

⁶ Pearson, *op. cit.*, pp. 94-96.

superintendent, the high school teacher, and the elementary school teacher. He asked a group of one hundred adults to place twenty-five cards "in the order of your admiration" for the vocations listed. The instructions said,

Try to answer for yourself the question, "Which occupation do I respect most?" Then ask, "Which occupation do I think least of?" Finally, place all of the remaining occupations in their proper position according to your esteem for them. Do not base your judgment upon any particular person, but simply rank the occupations according to your *general opinion* about them.

From these separate ratings, Hartmann tells us the composite picture portrayed in Table I was derived:

TABLE I. RANK ORDER OF PRESTIGE OF 25 OCCUPATIONS IN THE JUDGMENT OF ONE HUNDRED REPRESENTATIVES OF OTHER OCCUPATIONS ⁷

Rank Order	Occupation	Mean Position
1.	Physician	3.95
2.	Lawyer	4.58
3.	<i>College professor</i>	4.84
4.	<i>School superintendent</i>	6.25
5.	Clergyman	6.49
6.	<i>School principal</i>	7.81
7.	<i>High school teacher</i>	8.93
8.	Government employee	9.19
9.	<i>Elementary school teacher</i>	9.86
10.	Electrician	10.17
11.	Machinist	11.54
12.	Bookkeeper	12.16
13.	Farmer	12.39
14.	Carpenter	12.59
15.	Baker	14.00
16.	Store clerk	15.67
17.	Policeman	16.27
18.	Chef	16.51
19.	Barber	16.56
20.	Truck driver	17.73
21.	Laborer	19.50
22.	Janitor	21.39
23.	Messenger	21.58
24.	Night watchman	21.66
25.	Bootblack	23.20

⁷ George W. Hartmann, "The Prestige of Occupations," *The Personnel Journal*, 13:144-152 (October, 1934).

Inasmuch as the Table reveals "the type of occupation which the raters would desire for themselves were they free agents" the high ratings of the positions associated with the teaching profession are of great interest. If a person's morale or happiness were dependent upon the opinions of others, a teacher need not be ashamed of his calling. Moreover, Hartmann was surprised at the accuracy with which "self-ratings" of each vocational group agree with the relative positions assigned to them by other occupational classes.

Hartmann concludes :

. . . the public school teacher stands lowest among the accepted professional groups, but definitely above the great body of business, industrial, and commercial pursuits. If the public school teacher lacks caste, it must be only with the numerically small professional groups who stand above her; certainly this does not hold for the great body of citizens who fall below her in "status." If "average" social status is represented by the mean positions of such diverse vocations as salesman, nurse, bookkeeper, farmer, and carpenter, then there is not the slightest doubt that teachers as a class stand above these in "repute." In the eyes of the well-established professions, the school teacher may well suffer that uncertain appraisal which has historically been the fate of every semi-profession during its transitional stages but in the eyes of the larger body of non-professional claimants she stands definitely among the elect.⁸

In a much older study Lewis reported the judgments of high school seniors in a group of New England and Middle Western high schools with respect to forty-five occupations, including several types of teaching positions, on the basis of the desirability that attaches to membership in the several occupations. The position of the college professor ranked third; that of superintendent of schools ranked fifth; that of high school teacher, eleventh; that of an elementary school teacher, thirteenth; and that of a rural teacher, nineteenth. It is interesting to note that in the opinion of these high school seniors all teaching positions were ranked above the middle in the order of preference.⁹

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 151.

⁹ E. E. Lewis, *Personnel Problems of the Teaching Staff*, New York: The Century Co., 1925, p. 456.

A significant aspect of these two studies is the high relative ranking given to teaching positions by both adults and high school seniors.

When contemplating a vocational choice, every young person should seriously ask himself one question, "In which am I more interested, making a *life* or making a *living*?" When people think only in terms of income, they are giving paramount consideration to making a *living*. It is possible for a human robot to make a fair income without *living* at all. But if a person is interested in persons, books, the arts, scholarship, face-to-face contacts, and community relationships, in short, a *life* of service to others, he should not overlook teaching as a possible choice. The highway patrolman may look nice in his uniform and enjoy his rides in the state-owned vehicle, but he is not going anywhere in particular today or tomorrow. His *living* may be comparable to the teacher's, but his life is drab in comparison with the days of a college professor, a high school teacher, or an elementary school teacher.

Service to Others

Far more important than the personal satisfactions that come to the teacher are the services that he can render to others collectively and individually. A member of the New Deal brain-trust once said that every social reform for which Franklin Delano Roosevelt stood was taught to him at Harvard University thirty years earlier. Indeed, it is difficult to name a social, political, or moral reform at any period of history that was not taught to the citizens concerned in the days of their youth. Teachers are the most influential body of persons in any community, any time, anywhere.

Undoubtedly, the greatest thrill that can come to anyone in any line of endeavor is a commonplace with teachers, namely, the satisfaction of having influenced someone's life for good. The saying goes, it is a poor teacher whose pupils do not excel the master. Many teachers have commented that they never experience jealousy for pupils who later excel them in life. William Cullen Bryant has said, "Greatness is not in being strong, but in the right use of strength; and strength is not

used rightly when it serves only to carry a man above his fellows for his own solitary glory. He is the greatest whose strength carries up the most hearts by the attraction of his own."

Socrates taught Plato; Aristotle tutored Alexander the Great; Anselm is remembered best as Abelard's teacher; Basedow and Pestalozzi were greatly influenced by Rousseau; and Herbart and Froebel were Pestalozzi's disciples. In fact, the history of education reveals a series of such teacher-pupil contacts. More often than not even a great thinker's direct contributions are dwarfed by the works of his pupils.

Thomas Jefferson had the right idea of the influence of educators and the role of education. Though Jefferson had been Governor of Virginia during the Revolutionary War, had repeatedly served in the Virginia legislature and in Congress, and had twice been President of the United States, he counted all these of less importance than his share in the founding of the University of Virginia. In the inscription he prepared to be placed on his tomb he recounted only the founding of the University, the writing of the Declaration of Independence, and the authorship of the statute on religious freedom in Virginia.

We may safely conclude that no vocation presents a greater challenge than teaching, no vocational group has greater influence than the teaching profession, no occupation holds greater rewards in genuine satisfactions, and no other line of work exerts such direct influence on the lives of others. Truly, teaching is a noble profession. Its majesty is suggested in the following prayer for teachers from the pen of the late Glenn Frank, President of the University of Wisconsin:

A PRAYER FOR TEACHERS

O Lord of Learning and Learners, we are at best but blunderers in this godlike business of teaching.

Our shortcomings shame us, for we are not alone in paying the penalty for them; they have a sorry immortality in the maimed minds of those whom we, in our blunderings, mislead.

We have been content to be merchants of dead yesterdays, when we should have been guides into unborn tomorrows.

We have put conformity to old customs above curiosity about new ideas.

We have thought more about our subject than about our object.

We have been peddlers of petty accuracies, when we should have been priests and prophets of abundant living.

We have schooled our students to be clever competitors in the world as it is, when we should have been helping them to become creative co-operators in the making of the world as it is to be.

We have regarded our schools as training camps for an existing society to the exclusion of making them working models of an evolving society.

We have counted knowledge more precious than wisdom.

We have tried to teach our students what to think instead of how to think.

We have thought it our business to furnish the minds of our students, when we should have been laboring to free their minds.

And we confess that we have fallen into these sins of the school room because it has been the easiest way. It has been easier to tell our students about the motionless past that we can learn once for all than to join with them in trying to understand the moving present that must be studied afresh each morning.

May we realize that it is important to know the past only that we may live wisely in the present.

Help us to be more interested in stimulating the builders of modern cathedrals than in retailing to students the glories of ancient temples.

Give us to see that a student's memory should be a tool as well as a treasure-chest.

Help us to say "do" oftener than we say "don't."

May we so awaken interest that discipline will be less and less necessary.

Help us to realize that, in the deepest sense, we cannot teach anybody anything; that the best we can do is to help them to learn for themselves.

Save us from the blight of specialization; give us reverence for our materials, that we may master the facts of our particular fields, but help us to see that all facts are dead until they are related to the rest of knowledge and to the rest of life.

May we be shepherds of the spirit as well as masters of the mind.

Give us, O Lord of Learners, a sense of the divinity of our undertaking.¹⁰

¹⁰ Glenn Frank, "A Prayer for Teachers," courtesy, *United States Journal*, copyright McClure Newspaper Syndicate.

STUDY AIDS

1. Make a list of the greatest persons who ever lived. How many teachers did you include in the list? Why?
2. Make a list of the world's greatest thinkers. Come to class prepared to defend it. How many were teachers?
3. Name a few outstanding teachers in the history of your state. Come to class prepared to tell something about each.
4. Name a few outstanding teachers in the history of your school. What can you learn about them: their personalities, scholarship, methods of teaching, etc.?
5. Explain: "The teacher has two chances for immortality."
6. List some of the intrinsic rewards of teaching.
7. What is the prestige of the teacher in America? in your state? in your community?
8. What is the distinction made in the text between making a *life* and making a *living*? Do you agree?
9. Name some great teachers and their great students. Can you add to the list in the text?
10. Can you locate in educational literature other prayers for teachers similar to Frank's? Bring them to class.

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CHAPTER 2

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF TEACHERS

In making a vocational choice, there are a number of very practical considerations: What salary may I expect? Is there any assurance that my salary will not be lowered? What is the assurance that I can retain my position indefinitely? Are there retirement provisions, so that I can live when I am too old to work? Are there provisions for sick leave? When can I start to work? These and other teacher welfare topics will be discussed in this chapter.

Salaries

Inasmuch as the previous chapter contained some reference to the prestige of various occupations, probably our first consideration should be a comparison of salaries in teaching and other occupations. One such study ranked *public school teaching* (i.e., elementary and secondary school teaching) eleventh in a group of sixteen occupations according to estimated average earnings during a working lifetime. Those ranked above public school teaching were medicine, law, dentistry, engineering, architecture, *college teaching*, social work, journalism, ministry, and library work. On the other hand, teaching ranked above the skilled trades, nursing, unskilled labor, farming, and farm labor.¹

Several years ago Clark studied the annual earnings of fifteen occupational groups over a fifteen-year period. In descending order of average earnings they were as follows: medicine, \$4,850; law, \$4,730; engineering, \$4,410; dentistry, \$4,170; architecture, \$3,820; *college teaching*, \$3,050; journal-

¹ "The Status of the Teaching Profession," National Education Assn., *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XVIII, No. 2 (March, 1940), p. 61.

ism, \$2,120; library work, \$2,020; ministry, \$1,980; skilled trades, \$1,430; *public school teaching*, \$1,350; nursing, \$1,310; unskilled labor, \$795; farming, \$580; and farm labor, \$485. It is to be noted that skilled trades ranked above teaching, and this study was made before the essential war industries were organized.² The average salary for teachers has advanced considerably since this study was made.

Such studies can be very misleading. No doubt the very successful practitioner of any one of the lines of work would feel that his vocation was revealed in a false light. In other words, the *average* earnings are not *typical* for any vocation. The average is influenced by the many beginners at the bottom of the scale whose incomes are very low. This is noticeably true of the teaching profession. The vast majority of teachers are the meagerly prepared beginners serving in the one-teacher rural schools. Certainly, the contrast in the earnings of teachers from college teachers to rural school teachers is as marked as it would be in any vocational group. With this qualification in mind, prospective teachers should be interested in Table II, given on page 19.

TEACHERS' SALARIES BY STATES

The average annual salary of elementary and secondary school teachers has "increased slowly but steadily since 1870," according to the 1916-1918 Biennial Survey of the U. S. Office of Education. This report of statistics of state school systems adds that the average salary of all teachers in 1870 was \$189; in 1880, \$195; in 1890, \$252; in 1900, \$325; in 1910, \$485; and in 1918, \$635. . .

According to U. S. Office of Education reports, the national average of teachers' annual salaries had attained \$1,599 in 1942-43. This average was more than double the average during the First World War.

The leaders today are New York (\$2,697), District of Columbia (\$2,558), and California (\$2,497). The three lowest are Mississippi (\$654), Arkansas (\$756), and Georgia (\$901). The gap between the leader and the lowest has now become \$2,043. Indeed, relatively speaking, the rich became richer and the poor, poorer.³

² Harold F. Clark, *Life Earnings in Selected Occupations in the United States*, New York: Harper & Bros., 1937, p. 5.

³ *NEA Handbook*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1945, p. 164.

TABLE II. AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES BY STATES—SALARIES OF
TEACHERS, SUPERVISORS, AND PRINCIPALS, 1919-1943

States	1919-20	1923-24	1927-28	1931-32	1935-36	1939-40	1942-43
Continental United States	\$871	\$1,227	\$1,364	\$1,417	\$1,283	\$1,441	\$1,599
Alabama	484	635	747	710	606	744	925
Arizona	1,279	1,523	1,587	1,605	1,399	1,544	1,760
Arkansas	477	595	680	593	504	584	756
California	1,272	1,820	2,186	2,189	1,776	2,351	2,373
Colorado	929	1,279	1,450	1,386	1,248	1,393	1,462
Connecticut	1,124	1,508	1,715	1,970	1,679	1,861	2,271
Delaware	848	1,272	1,451	1,631	1,555	1,684	1,796
District of Columbia	1,359	1,727	2,196	2,340	2,376	2,350	2,558
Florida	518	698	906	867	905	1,012	1,219
Georgia	426	577	647	690	587	770	901
Idaho	932	1,154	1,160	1,166	943	1,057	1,115
Illinois	1,081	1,490	1,634	1,598	1,369	1,700	1,817
Indiana	964	1,422	1,430	1,497	1,294	1,433	1,606
Iowa	827	1,061	1,076	1,096	875	1,017	1,061
Kansas	761	1,087	1,166	1,123	855	1,014	1,258
Kentucky	413	876	851	835	787	826	1,014
Louisiana	723	890	980	895	793	1,006	1,149
Maine	603	832	927	952	798	894	1,031
Maryland	902	1,324	1,418	1,523	1,455	1,642	1,786
Massachusetts	1,262	1,637	1,823	1,845	1,834	2,037	2,225
Michigan	911	1,327	1,543	1,522	1,499	1,576	1,843
Minnesota	882	1,277	1,259	1,305	1,120	1,276	1,457
Mississippi	291	456	545	655	571	559	654
Missouri	797	1,033	1,164	1,230	1,048	1,159	1,253
Montana	958	1,096	1,137	1,184	1,073	1,184	1,326
Nebraska	765	1,027	1,092	1,051	772	829	933
Nevada	1,163	1,369	1,504	1,483	1,521	1,557	1,644
New Hampshire	759	1,063	1,185	1,258	1,207	1,258	1,394
New Jersey	1,282	1,786	2,002	2,192	1,864	2,093	2,269
New Mexico	803	992	1,037	1,096	984	1,144	1,296
New York	1,256	1,942	2,337	2,494	2,414	2,604	2,697
North Carolina	464	715	837	799	735	946	1,121
North Dakota	728	875	837	900	648	745	929
Ohio	1,088	1,362	1,529	1,573	1,522	1,587	1,881
Oklahoma	768	1,014	963	1,102	783	1,014	1,270
Oregon	870	1,221	1,348	1,439	1,154	1,333	1,532
Pennsylvania	920	1,395	1,538	1,630	1,549	1,640	1,745
Rhode Island	1,070	1,459	1,382	1,599	1,664	1,809	1,944
South Carolina	464	676	769	668	637	743	902
South Dakota	696	946	1,105	944	711	807	1,047
Tennessee	494	690	835	826	718	862	963
Texas	612	788	842	912	941	1,079	1,224
Utah	992	1,208	1,299	1,239	1,177	1,394	1,680
Vermont	667	846	988	931	917	981	1,045
Virginia	546	743	822	859	810	899	1,151
Washington	1,229	1,448	1,538	1,553	1,369	1,706	1,989
West Virginia	639	1,119	1,122	1,085	1,091	1,170	1,279
Wisconsin	915	1,376	1,290	1,388	1,280	1,379	1,581
Wyoming	869	1,105	1,151	1,250	1,023	1,169	1,137

Source: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education.

Salaries in City School Systems

Table III gives a statistical summary of the salaries and salary trends in city school systems. In commenting on this Table the *NEA Handbook* stated:

The first biennial salary survey of the NEA Research Division in 1922-23 included information from 964 cities. In 1944-45 reports were received from 1,897 systems. This doubling of the number of participating communities is indicative of a developing professional spirit and unity.

TRENDS SINCE 1922-23

Comparisons between 1922-23 and 1944-45 show the advances made in the past two decades. In 1922-23 the median salary of elementary-school classroom teachers in Group I was \$1,876; Group II, \$1,467; Group III, \$1,277; Group IV, \$1,200; Group V, \$1,105. In a little over twenty years the averages in these city groups have increased in amounts ranging between \$550 and \$700.

The medians of senior high school classroom teachers' salaries in 1922-23 were: Group I, \$2,487; Group II, \$1,917; Group III, \$1,670; Group IV, \$1,567; Group V, \$1,469. Comparisons . . . show average increases ranging between \$400 and \$700.

TRENDS SINCE 1930-31

Classroom teachers' salaries have shown the greatest improvement during the past fourteen years. Elementary school teacher medians have increased 22.3 per cent in Group I and 32.3 per cent in Group V. Junior high school and high school median salaries of classroom teachers have shown increases but by smaller amounts.

In all city-size groups superintendents' medians consistently show less improvement on the average than those of all classroom teachers and most principals.⁴

In the exigencies that arise in American life, teachers' salaries will be subject to some fluctuation up and down, but the general trend is certainly upward. A study of the NEA revealed that between 1943 and 1945,

55 per cent of the 1,253 cities having salary schedules made some kind of schedule revision. Only 6 per cent of these cities had the same

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 166.

TABLE III. MEDIAN SALARIES AND SALARY TRENDS IN CITY-SCHOOL SYSTEMS*

Ch. 2]

PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

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Type of position	Median salaries in 1944-45					Per cent of change in medians between 1930-31 and 1944-45				
	Group I cities 100,000 over	Group II cities 30,000- 100,000	Group III cities 10,000- 30,000	Group IV cities 5,000- 10,000	Group V cities 2,500- 5,000	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Group V
CLASSROOM TEACHERS										
Elementary ^a	\$2,602	\$1,980	\$1,780	\$1,662	\$1,537	+22.3	+23.1	+24.6	+27.6	+32.3
Junior high	2,812	2,226	1,978	1,859	1,726	+19.8	+19.7	+22.2	+24.4	+26.9
High school	3,214	2,464	2,235	2,024	1,885	+17.7	+16.7	+19.1	+19.6	+21.8
PRINCIPALS										
Elementary teaching	3,809	2,316	2,019	1,892	1,763	+56.4	+15.2	+15.9	+19.5	+25.1
Elementary supervising	3,772	2,880	2,644	2,510	2,457	+7.2	+8.8	+12.6	+12.1	+13.0
Junior high	4,657	3,651	3,077	2,563	2,219	+3.5	+8.9	+11.4	+17.4	+25.0
High school	5,310	4,396	3,657	3,139	2,757	+4.1	+2.7	+1.2	+11.1	+14.7
ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF										
Superintendents	9,150	6,750	5,250	4,339	3,736	-8.5	-0.1	+2.0	+3.6	+4.8
Business managers	4,825	3,775	3,162	3,033	2,750	-10.0	+2.3	-1.2	+21.3
Directors and assistants										
Vocational education	4,250	3,660	3,171	2,517	2,633	+19.7	+14.4	+5.1	+7.1	+5.3
Physical education	3,850	3,063	2,546	2,150	2,090	+24.2	+23.6	+26.7	+14.1	+19.0
Health	3,605	2,950	2,042	2,150	+13.8	+38.8	+15.6	+35.4
Art	3,606	2,739	2,211	1,969	1,775	+25.8	+17.9	+21.1	+16.6	+22.4
Music	3,636	2,830	2,283	2,047	1,845	+25.0	+19.2	+17.5	+18.4	+28.2
Home economics	3,750	2,630	2,054	1,750	1,733	+16.5	+14.3	+19.6	+8.5	+13.6
OTHER EMPLOYEES										
Secretaries (superintendents')	2,544	2,023	1,750	1,581	1,364	+9.2	+11.5	+20.4	+32.6	+54.1
Clerks (principals')	1,643	1,352	1,311	1,203	1,120	+28.3	+29.3	+35.7	+50.4	+43.4
Nurses	2,049	2,007	1,936	1,865	1,670	+19.5	+21.6	+9.9	+13.7	+8.0
Attendance officers ^b	2,518	1,994	1,638	810	450	+21.2	+14.9	+37.1

* NEA Handbook, 1945, p. 167.

^a Includes kindergarten teachers in Groups III, IV, and V.^b Not including chief attendance officers in Groups I and II.

schedule in 1944-45 as they had in 1942-43. Thirty-nine per cent have added a wartime adjustment to the 1942-43 salary schedule. Of the remainder (55 per cent)—28 per cent revised the 1942-43 schedule and in addition pay a wartime adjustment; 27 per cent revised the 1942-43 schedule with increases for some if not all of the teachers.⁵

Salaries Received at Different School Levels

Salaries vary at different levels of the American educational ladder. As we have already seen, college teachers receive salaries comparable to those received by the members of other recognized professions. Commonly, high school teachers receive more than elementary school teachers. Where this differential exists it is usually due to the differences in the academic and professional requirements exacted of the members of the two groups. High school teachers are commonly required to have a bachelor's degree, whereas the vast majority of elementary school teachers have less than a complete college education. Where teachers of the two levels, high school and elementary school, are required to have the same preparation, they commonly receive the same salary on what is called a single-salary schedule. Actually, in cities in 1940, the average salary of junior high school teachers was 13 per cent more than that of elementary school teachers; senior high school salaries averaged 22 per cent more salary than those at the elementary school level.⁶

Are Teachers' Salaries Adequate

A very interesting question is whether or not teachers' salaries have been adequate. The answer is an emphatic *No!* The figure below is quite revealing.

Neither the state nor the nation can afford to have poor schools. Education is the backbone of a democracy. Without adequate education, we perish. And adequate education depends upon the presence of adequately prepared teachers who demand reasonable salaries for their services.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 167.

⁶ "The Status of the Teaching Profession," National Education Assn., *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XVIII, No. 2 (March, 1940).

WHEN—

IN 1920 A STATE
PAID ITS TEACHERS
AN AVERAGE SALARY OF \$1196



IN 1940 ONLY 23 MEN PER 1000 COULD
NOT MEET THE MINIMUM EDUCATIONAL
STANDARD FOR MILITARY SERVICE.



WHEN—

ANOTHER STATE IN 1920
PAID ITS TEACHERS AN
AVERAGE SALARY OF \$481



110 PER 1000 OF ITS YOUNG MEN IN 1940 COULD
NOT MEET THE EDUCATIONAL STANDARD
FOR MILITARY SERVICE.



EACH DOLLAR SYMBOL REPRESENTS \$200.

EACH MAN SYMBOL REPRESENTS 10 MEN PER 1000 OF DRAFT AGE WHO IN 1940 HAD NOT COMPLETED AS MUCH AS 4 YEARS OF SCHOOLING.

SOURCE: THE TWO EXAMPLES ARE THE MEDIANS OF THE TWELVE STATES PAYING THE HIGHEST AND THE TWELVE PAYING THE LOWEST AVERAGE ANNUAL SALARIES TO TEACHERS IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.
DATA FROM THE U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION AND THE FEDERAL BUREAU OF THE CENSUS.

Figure 1. Lost Battalions Through Educational Unpreparedness *

If economic gain were the main incentive, teaching would not attract young people of quality. However, as we shall see, there is evidence that the public is becoming aroused out of its lethargy. In writing on the subject of teachers' salaries at the end of World War II, Joy Elmer Morgan, editor of the *Journal of the National Education Association* stated:

But the average salary of \$1,550 today is as inadequate under the new conditions that have arisen as the lower figure was during World War I. Every teacher must keep alive, must have the necessities of *subsistence*—food, clothing, shelter, and health services and if his standards in these matters are too low his teaching suffers. Every teacher has the usual obligations to himself and loved ones that call for thrift and *economic independence* to provide for the uncertainties of life. We all have these needs but the teacher has more. He is charged with transmitting the ideals and standards of good living and citizenship, the accumulated culture of democracy. To do this effectively, he must buy books and magazines, enjoy good music, travel, and continue his professional study. For the sake of society itself, his standard of living must include a *cultural factor*.

* "Teachers' Salaries and the Public Welfare," National Education Assn., *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXI, No. 4 (December, 1943), p. 104.

If teaching—in competition with law, medicine, engineering—is to attract and hold our ablest young men and women, salaries must be high enough to justify the long preparation and the quality of work required. Provision must be made for a *professional factor* in determining teachers' salaries.

Conditions vary so widely that it is not possible to name a figure for the country as a whole, but we suggest that a rich country like ours, which must go forward if it is to hold its place of leadership among the nations, cannot afford to employ any teacher who is not worth at least \$2,000 a year. In the words of Washington's memorable challenge, "Let us raise up a standard to which the wise and honest can repair." ⁷

State Minimum-Salary Standards for Teachers

In the effort to prevent extremely low teachers' salaries many states had enacted legislation establishing or supporting minimum salaries for public school teachers. Although this legislation has accomplished much good, modification of the legislation is now in order. While it is well to have a floor below which no teacher's salary may go, if teachers are to be adequately protected there must be provisions for higher minimums for teachers with higher qualifications, and required increments to recognize added years of experience and training. Many states are now modifying their laws along these lines.

The various statutes are so varied that any effort to classify them can be only partially satisfactory. Most common is the *minimum-salary law*. In 1944, twenty-six of the forty-eight states and one territory had minimum-salary laws governing the salaries of public school teachers. The states and territory and the dates of the original adoption of the minimum-salary law are as follows: West Virginia, 1882; Indiana, 1901; Pennsylvania, 1903; Maryland, 1904; North Dakota, 1905; Rhode Island, 1909; Iowa, 1913; Vermont, 1915; Wisconsin, 1915; Kentucky, 1918; Massachusetts, 1918; Delaware, 1919; New Jersey, 1919; New York, 1919; Oregon, 1919; Colorado, 1921; North Carolina, 1923; Mississippi, 1924; Tennessee,

⁷ Joy Elmer Morgan, "Teacher Recruiting and Salaries," *Journal of the National Education Assn.*, Washington, D. C., January, 1944.

1925; Alabama, 1927; California, 1937; Georgia, 1937; Washington, 1937; Alaska, 1939; Oklahoma, 1939; Maine, 1943; and Utah, 1943.⁸

Some of these laws are of uniform and rigid application, with no loophole for the paying of a lower salary. In other laws the payment of the minimum salary is a condition to be met in receiving state aid funds.

In the earlier minimum-salary laws, the monthly or annual rates of pay were written into the statutes by the legislatures. During the last twenty years several legislatures have delegated to the state departments of education the power of fixing minimum salaries. There is much to be said for this latter practice, since the details of salary scheduling lend themselves better to administrative than to legislative action.

All such laws safeguard local initiative by making it possible for local districts to exceed the state minimum in determining the beginning salaries in the district salary schedules. The local districts are left free to supplement the state minimums by the use of local funds. Undoubtedly, the state schedule should be exceeded where local resources and leadership make it possible.

Of the twenty-seven plans, fifteen classify salaries according to preparation, and of that number nine recognize experience through guaranteed increments, thus setting minimum salaries for teachers with different amounts of preparation and experience. In addition, two states that do not recognize preparation do recognize experience, thus making eleven that guarantee increments.

In general, the minimum-salary standards have been made possible and are being maintained only by extensive programs of state aid to local school districts. In some states, such as Alabama, Georgia, and North Carolina, where the minimum salaries seem very low as compared to national averages, the minimum-salary rates guaranteed by state aid have been invaluable in eliminating still lower salaries that prevailed in certain localities.

⁸ *State Minimum-Salary Standards for Teachers*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1944.

Teachers in states having statutory minimum-salary standards have recourse to the courts for the recovery of the legal salary. School officers attempting to pay less than the legal salary are usually liable under the law. State boards of education commonly have the duty of enforcing minimum-salary standards.

In 1944, the median of the lowest salaries for beginning teachers guaranteed by the twenty-seven states was \$876. The distribution of the minimum beginning salaries in 1944 was as follows:

Less than \$600.....	6 states
\$600 to \$899.....	8 states
\$900 to \$1,199.....	6 states
\$1,200 to \$1,499.....	5 states
\$1,500 or above.....	1 state and Alaska

In contrast were the salaries guaranteed to teachers with highest certificates when the last required increment has been granted as follows: Delaware, \$2,280; Iowa, \$1,480; Maryland, \$2,000; New York Union districts, \$1,900; New York City, \$4,500; North Carolina, \$1,548; Oklahoma, \$1,395; Pennsylvania first-class districts, \$3,300; Utah, \$1,776; Washington, \$1,620; West Virginia, \$1,665. The last median guaranteed salary for all states was \$1,620.

Although a median beginning salary of \$876, and a median salary of \$1,620 for the teacher of highest qualifications and extensive experience are both far too low, we must remember that these are neither the beginning nor the maximum salaries in the schools of these states. Rather, the figures above reflect the poorest beginning and concluding salaries in the respective states. Local districts usually supplement the guaranteed state-minimum salary. Moreover, in many instances these minimum salaries actually cover teachers of sub-standard qualifications. Certainly, the length of the school term and the professional qualifications of teachers are factors that must be considered in appraising the adequacy of a minimum-salary schedule.

For our present purpose it is interesting to note that many states think enough of the services of their public school

teachers to guarantee them a living wage, and to free them from haggling with local school superintendents and school boards. Even though the minimums are too low, the fact that they are on the statutes is a step forward; they can be revised from time to time. And, as noted before, many states are letting the state boards of education revise the schedules at will in view of costs-of-living trends⁹ or in view of desired professional qualifications for the teachers of a given state. Meanwhile, most local districts exceed the minimums specified in the law.

High Salaries in Education

In contemplating any vocational choice an individual should be concerned not so much with minimum or average salaries as with opportunities for higher salaries. Even the minimum salaries, as stated, will respond to public pressure. And, as pointed out before, average salaries are misleading; they do not show the number above the average or the range of the above-average salaries. Any unusually gifted person entering any vocation should have reasonable expectancy of occupying a position of some prominence. A pertinent question, then, is: Are there any high salaries in the teaching profession? If so, where?

Obviously, the big salaries will be in the big positions, such as superintendencies and college presidencies. In 1942-43 the salaries of superintendents of a few school systems in cities over 100,000 population were especially attractive: Long Beach, \$9,075; Los Angeles, \$12,000; Oakland, \$11,000; Sacramento, \$8,400; San Diego, \$9,200; and San Francisco, California, \$10,000; Denver, Colorado, \$8,500; Hartford, Connecticut, \$10,140; Wilmington, Delaware, \$10,000; Washington, D. C., \$10,000; Indianapolis, Indiana, \$10,000; South Bend, Indiana, \$8,500; Baltimore, Maryland, \$10,000; Boston, Massachusetts, \$12,000; Detroit, Michigan, \$12,500; Minneapolis, Minnesota, \$8,500; Kansas City, Missouri, \$11,500; St. Louis, Missouri, \$10,000; Elizabeth, \$8,500; Newark, \$15,000; Paterson,

⁹ *Cost-of-Living Trends—Their Meaning for Teachers*, Washington, D. C.: Division of Research, National Education Assn., February, 1945.

\$10,000; and Trenton, New Jersey, \$9,620; New York City, \$25,000; Rochester, \$8,500; and Yonkers, New York, \$9,625; Canton, \$10,800; Cincinnati, \$13,000; Cleveland, \$15,000; Columbus, \$11,050; Toledo, \$10,645; and Youngstown, Ohio, \$9,550; Tulsa, Oklahoma, \$8,500; Portland, Oregon, \$10,000; Erie, \$9,000; and Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, \$15,000; Providence, Rhode Island, \$11,500; Houston, Texas, \$12,000; Richmond, Virginia, \$8,640; Seattle, Washington, \$10,050; and Milwaukee, Wisconsin, \$11,060.¹⁰

Although salaries of college and university presidents are often confidential, it is known that several of them receive salaries in excess of any salary listed above. Moreover, many of them live in presidential homes furnished by the school and thus enjoy considerable concealed salary. Unless it be the headship of a great research or educational foundation, the president of a great public or private university or college is the acme of educational success, as far as remuneration is concerned. Many receive salaries in excess of \$20,000 and in addition enjoy other benefits of office in the form of residences and living expenses, traveling expenses, and entertainment expenses. In fact, higher education pays its executives far more salary than public systems pay their executives for similar responsibilities and duties.

In the school year 1944-45, the superintendents of school systems in cities over 100,000 in population received a median salary of \$9,150; the associate, assistant, or deputy superintendents, \$6,510; high school principals, \$5,310; assistant high school principals, \$4,167; junior high school principals, \$4,657; assistant junior high school principals, \$4,156; elementary school supervising principals, \$3,772; and assistant elementary school principals, \$4,239. (There are fewer assistant principals, and those few are in the larger schools where the principals receive substantially more salary). The median is a counting average; half of the individuals in each category receive more than the median and half, less.¹¹

¹⁰ "Special Salary Tabulations," Washington, D. C.: Tabulations 1-13, Division of Research, National Education Assn., June, 1943.

¹¹ Salaries of City-School Employees, 1944-45," National Education Assn., *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XXIII, No. 1 (February, 1945).

As early as 1930, it was estimated that there were nearly one hundred and fifty educational positions with salaries of \$10,000 or more.¹² Since then there has been an appreciable increase in the salaries of chief school executives at all levels of the American educational system. In fact, in addition to the presidents and superintendents, many college professors and several high school principals now receive more than this amount.

There are a great number of positions in education with incomes comparing very favorably with the incomes of the more successful doctors, lawyers, and business executives. The former president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Dr. Henry S. Pritchett, gave it as his opinion that the average pay of the college professor was greater than the average net income of businessmen in the United States. He called attention to the fact that although there is no chance for anyone to secure in the teaching profession the huge incomes that some men secure in business, many businessmen fail and a large number manage by hard struggle barely to keep above bankruptcy.

The premium paid on higher educational positions is revealed in the fact that city superintendents of schools commonly receive higher salaries than the mayors in the same cities; governors receive but little more than the chief state school officials; and superintendents in many states and cities receive higher salaries than United States congressmen and cabinet officers. When you are considering teaching as a career, these facts should be of more interest and concern to the gifted than those cited in the earlier portions of this chapter.

Extra Money for Teachers

Many teachers derive income from sources other than salary for the regular school term. Many teach in summer schools at the college, high school, and elementary school levels. Many teach in night schools in addition to their day school duties. Many work in the summertime and after school along non-

¹² "Academic Salaries," *School and Society*, 35:150 (January 30, 1932).

professional lines, sometimes by choice and oftentimes by necessity. In 1940, the NEA estimated that 80 per cent of the income of rural teachers was derived from salary alone. The estimate for the urban teachers was much higher, 96 per cent.¹³

College professors frequently supplement their regular incomes by royalties on their writing, by lecture fees, and by special fees for correspondence and extension courses. Some few professors make large fees as expert advisers along lines related to their specialties.

Superintendents of schools frequently have some of these same opportunities to supplement their salaries. Frequently, they teach professional courses in summer sessions in institutions of higher learning.

Although professional ethics frowns upon members of the teaching profession who sell school supplies and textbooks to their own school boards, many high school teachers and school principals act as salesmen for these lines, usually in communities other than the one in which they are regularly employed. Teachers, especially married men, frequently work after school in the evening and on Saturdays in a variety of occupations. In the cities the men commonly act as salesmen in stores or as insurance company agents. In the country men teachers oftentimes operate farms and related businesses on a part-time basis.

The question arises as to whether non-professional part-time work is desirable. Usually it is not, even though it may be necessary for the individual concerned. The public often gets the idea that the school teacher is the shoe salesman they saw in the chain store last Saturday. If so, why should he be asking for an increase in teachers' salaries; doesn't he already have two sources of income? The farmer-teacher finds himself regarded as a farmer by the professionally minded teachers and as a school teacher by the members of the local Farm Bureau. Oftentimes, he is willing to underbid the professional teacher for a given position—he can afford to do so because to him teaching is a supplementary position. Undoubtedly the solution for all concerned is *better salaries for teachers!*

¹³ "The Status of the Teaching Profession," National Education Assn., *Research Bulletin*, Vol. XVIII, No. 2 (March, 1940).

Teacher Retirement

Closely allied to the question of salary is that of providing for teachers in their old age after they have left classroom service. In view of the comparatively low salaries which teachers receive, many persons may hesitate to enter the teaching profession unless they have definite assurance of a dignified exit from active service, after their usefulness has diminished through age or permanent disability. It is a commonplace observation that many teachers are paid salaries lower than they could command outside the schools but continue in the profession because of their liking for the calling. If society is interested in obtaining efficient teachers, it must have a satisfactory plan for retiring disabled and aged teachers. Both the profession and society are benefited by a plan that eliminates the disabled personnel and attracts capable, farsighted young people into the teaching corps. Unquestionably, the health and the efficiency of the teachers are increased during active service by a retirement plan that removes the fear and worry of a destitute old age. Society also benefits from a sound teacher retirement system which keeps ex-teachers off public and private charity.

The retirement idea is comparatively new. The first organization was established in New York City in 1869. Before the turn of the century the teachers of Boston, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Baltimore, Washington, D. C., and several states had retirement plans. These early systems were voluntary, mutual-aid societies. In 1895, legislation permitting deductions from teachers' salaries to be used as pensions was established for the teachers of New York City. From this date considerable effort has been made to reorganize the older systems and to establish new ones. In 1944, statewide plans were in operation in thirty-nine states and Hawaii, and city retirement systems had been established in one or more cities in seven of the other nine states. The states without state-wide systems were Delaware, South Carolina, Tennessee, Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, South Dakota, Idaho, and Oregon.¹⁴ Of the above-named states

¹⁴ *Teacher Retirement*, Discussion Pamphlet No. 2, Washington, D. C.: Department of Classroom Teachers and Division of Research, National Education Assn., November, 1944.

all except Idaho and South Dakota had cities with retirement systems. South Dakota has had a law establishing a system on its books since 1939, but at this writing it was not in operation, due to the failure of the legislature to appropriate money for this purpose.

A detailed description of the various types of retirement systems is beyond our present purposes. The joint-contributory system is favored by the authorities. The cost of such a system is shared by the members and the state or city on a contractual basis; so long as the member contributes, the governmental unit is obligated to do so. And more important, after a member of a joint-contributory system retires, the government cannot legally stop the member's allowance. Such a system is better than a pension plan, for a pension, commonly regarded as a gratuity or gift from the government, may be withdrawn at any time. The prospective woman teacher will be delighted to learn that the teacher's contribution in the joint-contributory plan is returnable if and when the teacher leaves the profession for marriage or any other reason. Also, the teacher's contribution becomes a part of the teacher's estate in the event of death and goes to the legal heirs.

At the time of this writing, the Federal Social Security Act did not apply to teachers, although there were many proposals to include teachers and other public employees. Inasmuch as the maximum total benefit to employees was definitely limited—after all, the Act was largely designed to reduce suffering caused by unemployment, old age, and sudden death of the breadwinner—teachers were receiving better consideration in teacher-retirement systems and were hopeful that they would not be forced into the Social Security setup.

There is one limitation of most teacher-retirement systems. When a teacher moves across a state line or out of a city, he not only loses membership in the system he is leaving, but he also loses credit for all or part of his past service. If he moves to a state without a retirement system, he loses any chance for an old-age annuity. If he moves into a state with a retirement system from a state without one, he may arrive too late to build up a reserve adequate to assure a satisfactory retirement allow-

ance. Beginning teachers should keep this limitation in mind before starting their careers in any given locality. Meanwhile, the profession should work for the establishment of a good retirement system in every state and for provisions in all state systems permitting the transfer of service credits from one state to another.

Retirement systems vary as to the age when teachers may retire. Usually they can retire as early as age 55 in states where they have taught for thirty years, or at age 60 if they have served fifteen years in the schools of that state. As a general rule, public school teachers are compelled to retire at age 70, and it is anticipated that most teachers will retire at age 65. Moreover, most systems have disability features which may be used by either the employee or the employer in cutting short a teacher's working life.

Most colleges and universities have joint-contributory retirement systems. In fact, most college professors seek membership in the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association, where they get additional pension advantages from moneys left by Andrew Carnegie, American philanthropist. However, the age of retirement and other features of the systems vary among the states and institutions.

Teacher Tenure

Another matter of great concern to the beginning teacher is security in a position, once it has been obtained and satisfactory service rendered. Although a good teacher usually has tenure in his positions without the aid of teacher-tenure laws, there is additional protection in having statutory provisions securing a position to the teacher except for stated reasons and until the teacher's services are terminated in an orderly way by a specified procedure.

In states having tenure laws, instead of being employed for one school year at a time, the teachers, after serving a probationary period, are employed for an indefinite length of time, so long as their services and conduct are satisfactory. If a teacher's services or conduct is in question, the school board must charge

the teacher in writing with his deficiencies and give him a proper hearing with legal counsel and witnesses of his choosing. If the board is satisfied that the charges are proved, in most states, he may then appeal to either a higher school administrator or to the courts. The intent of tenure laws is to protect teachers against unfair dismissals, to provide a fair way of eliminating unfit teachers, and to relieve teachers of the fear and worry they might otherwise have.

Authorities in school administration are quite generally agreed that tenure laws operate in the interests of society and its children, as well as the teachers concerned. Obviously, prospective teachers will not hesitate to enter the teaching profession in states operating fair tenure systems. The teachers will be protected against the assaults of discontented parents, pressure groups of all kinds—political, religious, economic, or social—and against the rare mean and contemptible administrator. Moreover, teachers will feel freer to discuss controversial issues in school, and thus enhance the educational opportunities of their students. In many systems without tenure, academic freedom, the right to present a point of view, is impossible because of the domination of prejudiced patrons and community leaders. Tenure laws generally improve the educational output of a given school.

One aspect of tenure legislation which is commonly overlooked is its advantage to school boards in eliminating poor teachers or teachers of doubtful value. During the probationary period the school administrators can ascertain whether or not the beginning teacher is a person of promise. If not, he can be eliminated before he has tenure. Unquestionably, in tenure systems the board considers the matter very seriously before giving anyone tenure, "until death do us part." Pupils are entitled to competent teachers and a tenure law puts the new teacher on trial.

Unfortunately, tenure laws can be abused. Occasionally, communities adopt the policy of terminating the services of all or most of the teachers at the end of the probationary period, and before they can attain tenure under the law. This policy defeats the purpose of the law, makes tramps out of teachers,

and makes teaching a procession rather than a profession. The beginning teacher should investigate not only the presence or absence of tenure laws in a given system, but how the tenure system operates with reference to probationary teachers.

In 1944, thirty-four states had state-wide tenure laws. The exceptions were Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Rhode Island, Virginia, Mississippi, Texas, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming, Idaho, Utah, and Arizona.¹⁵ However, all but eight of these states and Alaska had state laws governing the duration of teachers' contracts. In the opinion of the NEA committee, six states had laws prescribing tenure in the dictionary sense but not in the technical sense. Several states had a continuing contract which assured teachers of re-employment unless they were notified to the contrary before a certain date. Also, some states permitted teachers' contracts for more than one school year. In many states tenure provisions vary within the state.

Even where teachers have no legal tenure they have recourse to their professional organizations—local, state, and national. In the face of a united front by the professional organizations, most school boards will gladly review cases of the dismissal of teachers. A striking example is the Kate Frank case. In the spring of 1943, without warning, without charges and without a hearing, Miss Kate Frank of Muskogee, Oklahoma, was not reappointed for the school year 1943-44. Inasmuch as she had served in the Muskogee schools for twenty-three years and was active in the professional organizations—having served as president of the local and state teachers' organizations as well as Oklahoma State Director for the National Education Association—the NEA Committee on Tenure investigated the situation. They found that "her honesty and public-spirited efforts to improve Muskogee schools" were respected by scores of influential citizens, but were apparently resented and even feared by school officials and the board of education.¹⁶ Her dismissal was

¹⁵ *Teacher Tenure*, Discussion Pamphlet, No. 1, Washington, D. C.: Department of Classroom Teachers and Division of Research, National Education Assn., October, 1944.

¹⁶ *You're Fired—It Might Have Been You*, Washington, D. C.: Committee on Tenure, National Education Assn., May, 1944, p. 7.

determined to be a political reprisal. Although an immediate reinstatement was not secured, in the autumn of 1945, Miss Frank was on the job again. Meantime, in the spring of 1945, there was a school board election. While Miss Frank was out of a job, the NEA solicited several thousand dollars from approximately 150,000 teachers in twenty-seven states and also from the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, so that Miss Frank could stay in Muskogee and devote her time to helping teachers in attempting to solve the problems confronting them in regard to contractual relationships, retirement, and school finance.

No teacher should hesitate to invoke the aid of professional organizations when his tenure is in question, whether teaching in a tenure-law state or elsewhere. The Platform of the National Education Association says, "*The interests of the child and of the profession require teachers who are protected in their Constitutional rights of freedom of speech, press, and assembly. Intellectual freedom is a public safeguard.*"

College professors usually enjoy tenure of office. Although the provisions vary from institution to institution, instructors frequently obtain tenure after a brief probationary period—three to five years—and assistant, associate, and full professors new to an institution usually obtain tenure after a few years of service; the usual limit is three years. Academic freedom and the right to deal with controversial issues, even to take sides, are usually taken for granted in institutions of higher learning. When the professors are released, the American Association of University Professors usually makes an investigation to determine the cause, and if nothing is done about their recommendations for the reinstatement of deserving professors, the institution is immediately placed on the blacklist, where it remains until it changes its policies. No university or college can withstand an unfavorable press for very long. Consequently, administrators think twice before they attack instructors and professors unjustly.

Unfortunately, some college teachers enjoy too much security, if such a thing is possible. At any rate, there are drones, critics, and cynics on every campus, who hide behind

the tenure traditions given them while they loaf, poke fun, and tear down the administration. Fortunately, this group is relatively small and, generally speaking, an insignificant one.

Leave of Absence

Opportunities for leave of absence, temporary or sabbatical, are also worthy of consideration by the prospective teacher. These provisions vary from system to system and are more frequently found in urban schools than rural schools and in higher institutions of learning than in the public elementary and secondary schools. Nevertheless, there is a very definite trend in this direction in school administration.

Temporary absences are commonly granted to teachers to enable them to meet the exigencies of life, such as personal illness and deaths of immediate members of the teacher's family, and to prepare themselves better for their professional duties, such as attendance at teachers' institutes, conventions of the professional associations, visits to other schools, lectures, and excursions. Usually the rules governing temporary absences are well known by those concerned. In institutions of higher learning, where definite traditions are established, such things are rarely mentioned in contracts, but in city school systems the contracts are usually quite explicit on these matters.

In school systems where policies are very well established, the allowance of pay for temporary absences takes either of two forms. Most city systems prescribe each year the allowance of pay for absence: if the teacher is not absent in a given year, there is no additional allowance for absence the next year. Fewer city systems use the cumulative plan: if the teacher is not absent during the year, he can count on so many additional absences the next year without salary deductions. Under such a scheme in five or six years a faithful, healthy teacher may accumulate sufficient sick-leave with pay to permit attendance at an institution of higher learning for a semester, a trip, or an extended vacation.

Smaller systems rarely have formal provisions for sick-leave. Nevertheless, informal arrangements are frequently made so

that teachers may absent themselves from school during emergencies of one sort or another without loss of pay. Frequently, a principal will substitute for a teacher, or teachers with free periods will take over the classes of the absent teachers. And, oftentimes, a teacher is permitted to nominate and pay his substitute while excused from school for sickness or personal business.

A few states have sick-leave statutes, which apply uniformly to all teachers, or to teachers outside the larger cities. Whether or not these statutes are desirable is debatable; certainly they play havoc with the informal practices described above.

Teachers are more fortunate than most salaried workers in the financial consideration given them during sickness or other temporary absences. Wage earners in industry are frequently checked and docked by the hour as well as by the day. However, it must be admitted that the higher the status of the employee, the less likely he is to lose pay when absent from his post for a justifiable reason. Of course, professional men—lawyers, doctors, dentists—lose even more than their fees when they absent themselves from their offices; they may, and frequently do, lose their clients or patients.

“Sabbatical leave” is a traditional practice in many universities and colleges and is now being introduced in certain public school systems. The name is used to describe the practice of allowing pay during the seventh year of service to professors or teachers to enable them to study, do research, travel, or rest. Usually, the salary represents only partial pay but in a few institutions of higher learning the professor may get full pay while on sabbatical leave. In public school systems, where it exists at all, sabbatical leave usually carries half pay or no pay at all. Occasionally the regular teacher will receive an amount representing the difference between his regular salary and the substitute’s stipend. Oftentimes, public school teachers take sabbatical leaves to attend universities and to earn advanced degrees recognized in the salary schedules. In this event, although the pay may be missed temporarily, the salary received in the future will usually be higher.

A sabbatical leave always involves an obligation to return

to the institution or system granting it for a reasonable period of service, one to three years. Otherwise, sabbatical leaves would become very costly; some teachers wishing to leave the system would accept partial pay for leave while angling for positions in other systems.

Other Considerations

In addition to the other privileges and guarantees discussed in this chapter, the prospective teacher should not overlook the advantages of early placement. When the demand exceeds the supply of teachers, as it does today, and will continue to do for many years, many prospective teachers are under contract before they graduate from teacher-training institutions, and most of them are under contract months in advance of the beginning date of their services.

Nor do they have to worry about placement. Most teacher-training institutions maintain placement bureaus, whose function it is to canvass the available situations and to recommend teachers for definite positions known to be vacant. These teacher-training placement bureaus do not exact fees from the graduates. Rarely need a teacher resort to a commercial teachers' agency, where he will have to pay a fee for placement. Moreover, professional superintendents are duty-bound to consult the fee-less placement bureaus before they turn to commercial agencies. As long as teachers' salaries are low, a teacher should think twice before he obligates himself to pay a fee to a teachers' agency. And, if he does do business with an agency, he had better read the contract with the agency carefully; usually he obligates himself to pay a fee to the agency for every year that he retains the position obtained through the agency.

Conclusion

A perusal of this chapter should convince the reader that, in spite of the handicap of low salary, teaching does possess a very *practical* appeal. In few avenues of life does the prospective worker have the assurances given to prospective teachers:

definite income, salary schedules, retirement provisions, tenure, temporary and sabbatical leave, and early placement. While it must be admitted that many of these features were brought about because of low salaries, it is a fact that definite salary schedules with definite yearly increments for additional years of service and professional training, definite retirement guarantees, protected tenure in the position, and pay allowances for leaves of absence exist in few other lines of work. In fact, these far-sighted provisions compensate in large measure for the salary differential that exists between teaching and certain other professions, and they make teaching far more attractive than the usual job, where the employer hires and fires at will, wrangles with the employee over the wage scale and usually sets it in terms of the dividends the business must pay, retains the right to tell the employee when he may or may not have a vacation or go to a funeral, and retains the right to dismiss the worker whenever he is too old for the job. Furthermore, as pointed out in the next chapter, there will always be work to be done in the teaching profession. And, as stated earlier, for many persons it will be the most interesting work in the world.

STUDY AIDS

1. List the factors to be considered in selecting a vocation. See any text or reference book on vocations or careers.
2. Why are the usual statistics on teachers' salaries misleading? What factors are overlooked in selecting a vocation on the basis of average yearly income?
3. Are teachers' salaries improving as time goes on?
4. What size communities pay the highest teachers' salaries? Why?
5. Should high school teachers receive more than elementary school teachers? Why, or why not?
6. What is a reasonable beginning salary for teachers? Justify your answer.
7. Does your state have a minimum salary for teachers? What is it? Locate the law, copy it, and bring the copy to class.

8. Should school districts be permitted to exceed minimum-salary schedules? Why, or why not?
9. Do local districts commonly supplement the guaranteed state-minimum salary? Does your community? If so, why?
10. How many school positions in your state pay over \$10,000? How many should carry this, or a higher salary?
11. Under what circumstances should a teacher engage in non-professional activities in order to supplement his salary? Is it a good practice?
12. Does your state have a retirement law for teachers? What are its provisions? (See No. 7 above).
13. Should teachers be included in the Federal Social Security Act? Are they? (The NEA will supply an answer to this question.)
14. Does your state have a teacher-tenure law? What are its provisions? (See Nos. 7 and 10 above.)
15. Debate the issue: Resolved, that every state should have a teacher-tenure law.
16. What was the Kate Frank case? Do you know of a similar instance?
17. Are there state laws governing "leave of absence"? (The NEA will furnish up-to-date information.)
18. What is "sabbatical leave"? How should it be spent?
19. Are teachers, as a class, *practical* folk? What is the evidence for your reply?
20. Assign a committee to watch developments in your state along the lines considered in this chapter. Assign the committee a regular time each week to report its findings to the class. Maybe your class will wish to sponsor legislation along these lines.

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CHAPTER 3

OPPORTUNITIES IN THE TEACHING PROFESSION

What nobler employment, or more valuable to the state, than that of the man who instructs the rising generations.—
CICERO (78 B.C.)

The Ever-Increasing Demand for Teachers

Probably the first, if not the most important, question asked by the person making a vocational choice has to do with the prospects for permanent employment. No one wishes to spend much time preparing for any line of work unless he has a reasonable expectancy for immediate placement and for long tenure in the job. In answer to this query, let it be said as emphatically as possible, *of all professions teaching engages the services of the largest number of persons.* Approximately one-third of all individuals engaged in professional and semi-professional occupations are teachers. The 1,100,000 teachers of 1940 were employed in 223,295 public schools, 15,000 private elementary and secondary schools, 1,700 colleges and universities, and a number of other educational institutions, all of which enrolled approximately 30,000,000 pupils.

Table IV reveals the ever-increasing demand for the services of teachers in the various types of schools. Obviously, as the population increases, the demand will continue. Although there have been periods of intensity in the demand for teachers at all levels of the American educational ladder, there is still room for more teachers at every level.

Americans can take pride in the nation's educational achievement in comparison with that of other countries. Nevertheless, as Major Arthur Goodfriend, editor of the Army publication *Stars and Stripes*, stated, in terms of the ideals of democracy

TABLE IV. TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES, 1909-10 TO 1939-40 *

Type of School, by level	1909-10		1919-20		1929-30		1939-40	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Total	158,574	471,633	151,215	663,958	217,138	820,467	300,905	801,078
KINDERGARTEN AND ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS:								
Public	91,691	397,418	63,024	523,244	67,239	573,718	67,140	508,060
Private	5,171	29,572	6,322	38,977	1,466	60,101	3,871	60,976
SECONDARY SCHOOLS:								
Public	20,290	23,311	32,386	70,289	74,532	138,774	126,837	173,440
Private	4,512	6,634	5,698	9,248	8,157	13,631	11,547	18,583
Preparatory departments of colleges	2,807	1,741	2,714	1,568	1,564	1,251	1,968	1,753
HIGHER EDUCATION:								
Normal schools and teachers colleges:								
Public	1,692	3,122	2,963	5,161	5,315	7,588	4,946	5,737
Private	503	597	597	866	680	880	365	657
Universities, colleges, and professional schools	27,336	3,230	33,299	8,020	55,297	15,112	80,936	24,176
Residential schools for exceptional children	1,134	2,352	1,165	2,744	1,578	6,571	1,107	4,599
Federal schools for Indians and Alaskans	1,702	2,456	141	652	447	1,132	438	947
Private commercial and business schools	1,736	1,200	2,976	3,189	1,863	2,211	1,750	2,150

* Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, Statistical Summary of Education, 1939-40, Vol. II, Ch. 1, p. 35.

"the record stinks." Of the boys in the United States armed services in World War II only 23 $\frac{3}{10}$ per cent were high school graduates and only 3 $\frac{6}{10}$ per cent were college graduates. This means that over 70 per cent of the highly selected boys in the armed forces had less than a high school education.¹ When we are reminded that 40 per cent of the boys examined in the selective service draft were rejected for mental, emotional, or educational deficiencies, the picture is even more startling. Before equality of educational opportunity is achieved, we shall need many additional elementary school teachers and also many, many more high school and college teachers.

The 1940 census made the first complete inventory of the educational status of the entire population of the United States. According to the *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, the educational experience of 74,775,836 persons 25 years old and over was as follows :

2,799,923	(3.7 per cent)less than one year of schooling
7,304,689	(9.8 per cent)1-4 years of schooling
8,515,111	(11.4 per cent)5-6 years of schooling
25,897,953	(34.6 per cent)7-8 years of schooling
11,181,995	(15.0 per cent)1-3 years high school
10,551,680	(14.1 per cent)4 years high school
4,075,184	(5.4 per cent)1-3 years of college
3,407,331	(4.6 per cent)4 or more years of college
1,041,970	(1.4 per cent)not reported

In calculating the need for teachers two other factors must be considered; namely, birth rate and life expectancy. The increase in the birth rate in the United States during the early years of World War II numbered more than our total war loss. As everyone knows, these figures for births represent elementary school enrollments five or six years later, high school enrollments twelve to fourteen years later, and college and university enrollments eighteen to twenty years later.

The total number of births in Continental United States, as given by the United States Census Bureau, are as follows :

¹ *Time*, January 29, 1945.

1944	2,794,000
1943	2,934,860
1942	2,808,996
1941	2,513,427
1940	2,360,399
1939	2,265,588
1938	2,286,962
1937	2,203,337
1936	2,144,796
1935	2,155,105
1934	2,167,636
1933	2,081,232
1932	2,074,042
1931	2,112,760
1930	2,203,958

Due to the advances in medical science, every person in the United States has a life expectancy greater than that of his ancestors. This means that more pre-school children will live to go to the elementary school, more children of elementary school age will go on to high school, and more high school graduates will enter college. As the American people become more conscious of their educational deficiencies, more adult education will be necessary and, as adults live longer, adult education will extend over longer periods of time.

The Census Bureau reported wartime birth-death totals as follows:

1941	2,513,427 births and 1,397,642 deaths
1942	2,808,996 births and 1,385,187 deaths
1943	2,934,860 births and 1,459,544 deaths
1944	2,794,800 births and 1,411,338 deaths

Dr. Louis I. Dublin, statistician for the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, estimates the life expectancy of eighteen-year-old youngsters, as follows:

Year or period	Male		Female	
	White	Colored	White	Colored
1941	49.7	41.7	53.6	44.3
1940	49.4	41.2	53.0	43.3
1930-39	48.5	39.6	51.5	41.4
1929-31	47.7	37.4	50.3	38.6
1920-29	47.5	38.2	49.2	38.3
1919-21	47.2	39.6	48.1	38.3
1909-11	44.3	34.7	46.5	37.4
1901-10	44.0	35.0	46.0	37.3
1900-02	43.8	36.3	45.3	38.0

TABLE V. UNITED STATES POPULATION (OFFICIAL CENSUS),
1800-1940

	1800	1820	1840	1860
Alabama		127,901	590,756	964,201
Arizona				
Arkansas		14,273	97,574	435,450
California				379,994
Colorado				34,277
Connecticut	251,002	275,248	309,978	460,147
Delaware	64,273	72,749	78,085	112,216
District of Columbia	14,093	33,039	43,712	75,080
Florida			54,477	140,424
Georgia	162,686	340,989	691,392	1,057,286
Idaho				
Illinois		55,211	476,183	1,711,951
Indiana	5,641	147,178	685,866	1,350,428
Iowa			43,112	674,913
Kansas				107,206
Kentucky	220,955	564,317	779,828	1,155,684
Louisiana		153,407	352,411	708,002
Maine	151,719	298,335	501,793	628,279
Maryland	341,548	407,350	470,019	687,049
Massachusetts	422,845	523,287	737,699	1,231,066
Michigan		8,896	212,267	749,113
Minnesota				172,023
Mississippi	8,850	75,448	375,651	791,305
Missouri		66,586	383,702	1,182,012
Montana				
Nebraska				28,841
Nevada				6,857
New Hampshire	183,858	244,161	284,574	326,073
New Jersey	211,149	277,575	373,306	672,035
New Mexico				93,516
New York	589,051	1,372,812	2,428,921	3,880,735
North Carolina	478,103	638,829	753,419	992,622
North Dakota				
Ohio	45,365	581,434	1,519,467	2,339,511
Oklahoma				
Oregon				52,465
Pennsylvania	602,365	1,049,458	1,724,033	2,906,215
Rhode Island	69,122	83,059	108,830	174,620
South Carolina	345,591	502,741	594,398	703,708
South Dakota				4,837
Tennessee	105,602	422,823	829,210	1,109,801
Texas				604,215
Utah				40,273
Vermont	154,465	235,981	291,948	315,098
Virginia	880,200	1,065,366	1,239,797	1,596,318
Washington				11,594
West Virginia				
Wisconsin				
Wyoming				
Total	5,308,483	9,638,453	17,069,453	31,443,321

(Official Census, continued on following page)

TABLE V. UNITED STATES POPULATION (OFFICIAL CENSUS),
1800-1940—(Continued)

	1880	1900	1920	1940
Alabama	1,262,505	1,828,697	2,348,174	2,832,961
Arizona	40,440	122,931	334,162	499,261
Arkansas	802,525	1,311,564	1,752,204	1,949,387
California	864,694	1,485,053	3,426,861	6,907,387
Colorado	194,327	539,700	939,629	1,123,296
Connecticut	622,700	908,420	1,380,631	1,709,242
Delaware	146,608	184,735	223,003	266,505
District of Columbia	177,624	278,718	437,571	663,091
Florida	269,493	528,542	968,470	1,897,414
Georgia	1,542,180	2,216,331	2,895,832	3,123,723
Idaho	32,610	161,772	431,866	524,873
Illinois	3,077,871	4,821,550	6,485,280	7,897,241
Indiana	1,978,301	2,516,462	2,930,390	3,427,796
Iowa	1,624,615	2,231,853	2,404,021	2,538,268
Kansas	996,096	1,470,495	1,769,257	1,801,028
Kentucky	1,648,690	2,147,174	2,416,630	2,845,627
Louisiana	939,946	1,381,625	1,798,509	2,363,880
Maine	648,936	694,466	768,014	847,226
Maryland	934,943	1,188,044	1,449,661	1,821,244
Massachusetts	1,783,085	2,805,346	3,852,356	4,316,721
Michigan	1,636,937	2,420,982	3,668,412	5,256,106
Minnesota	780,773	1,751,394	2,387,125	2,792,300
Mississippi	1,131,597	1,551,270	1,790,618	2,183,796
Missouri	2,168,380	3,106,665	3,404,055	3,784,664
Montana	39,159	243,329	548,889	559,456
Nebraska	452,402	1,066,300	1,296,372	1,315,834
Nevada	62,266	42,335	77,407	110,247
New Hampshire	346,991	411,588	443,083	491,524
New Jersey	1,131,116	1,883,669	3,155,900	4,160,165
New Mexico	119,565	195,310	360,350	531,818
New York	5,082,871	7,268,894	10,385,227	13,479,142
North Carolina	1,399,750	1,893,810	2,559,123	3,571,623
North Dakota	319,146	646,872	641,935
Ohio	3,198,062	4,157,545	5,759,394	6,907,612
Oklahoma	790,391	2,028,283	2,336,434
Oregon	174,768	413,536	783,389	1,089,684
Pennsylvania	4,282,891	6,302,115	8,720,017	9,900,180
Rhode Island	276,531	428,556	604,397	713,346
South Carolina	995,577	1,340,316	1,683,724	1,899,804
South Dakota	135,177	401,570	636,547	642,961
Tennessee	1,542,359	2,020,616	2,337,885	2,915,841
Texas	1,591,749	3,048,710	4,663,228	6,414,824
Utah	143,963	276,749	449,396	550,310
Vermont	332,286	343,641	352,428	359,231
Virginia	1,512,565	1,854,184	2,309,187	2,677,773
Washington	75,116	518,103	1,356,621	1,736,191
West Virginia	618,457	958,800	1,463,701	1,901,974
Wisconsin	1,315,497	2,069,042	2,632,067	3,137,587
Wyoming	20,789	92,531	194,402	250,742
Total	50,155,783	75,994,575	105,710,620	131,669,275

To be sure, the proportion of youth in the population will decline as Americans live longer. However, there is every reason to believe that the proportion of young people in school will steadily increase.

Every person included in the United States census is a potential enrollee at several schools; in a true democracy all should climb the American educational ladder, rung by rung, as far as natural endowments will permit. After formal schooling is over and the normal activities of adult life started, attendance at school should not cease. An inspection of the census reveals the task ahead, as well as the constant demand for teachers in schools of all types. (See Table V, given on pages 48 and 49.)

In visualizing the demand for teachers, two other tables will prove of interest. Table VI shows the number of classroom teachers in public elementary and secondary schools by states from 1870 to 1940 by ten-year intervals. Table VII shows the pupil enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools over the same period of time.

In describing the extent of the teaching profession in the general population, the Commission on Teacher Education, 1944, stated,

The relative size of this body will be made clearer by some comparisons. Let us imagine an "average" community of 10,000 typical of the nation as a whole with respect to distribution of population by age and occupation. Eight hundred of the inhabitants will be less than 5 years of age, hence—with a relatively few nursery school exceptions—not yet involved in regularly organized education. Between the ages of 5 and 19 there will be 2,640 boys and girls, of whom 1,980, or 75 per cent, will be accounted for by attendance at the local schools. Of the 6,560 inhabitants 20 years of age or older, 75 will be teachers. In the same population there will be only 13 lawyers and judges, 13 physicians and surgeons, 10 clergymen, and 6 dentists. So far as numbers are concerned, then, the teachers clearly constitute a leading professional group.²

² *Teachers for Our Times*, A Statement of Purposes by the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1944.

TABLE VI. NUMBER OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY STATES, 1870-1940

	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
Continental United States	200,517	282,448	363,935	421,288	523,210	679,533	854,263	875,477
Alabama	3,000*	4,615	6,318	6,578	8,756	12,558	17,130	19,405
Arizona		101	240	399	851	1,955	3,273	3,384
Arkansas ...	2,003	1,827	5,016	6,959	9,522	10,476	12,990	12,852
California ...	1,687	3,595	5,434	7,605	11,369	19,343	36,768	38,304
Colorado	140*	678	2,375	3,597	5,200	7,386	9,744	8,918
Connecticut ..	2,813	3,100	4,093	4,160	5,277	8,455	9,811	9,619
Delaware	300*	594	701	840	993	1,134	1,420	1,626
District of Columbia ..	200*	433	745	1,226	1,631	2,096	2,722	3,057
Florida	250	1,095	2,510	2,729	4,015	6,819	10,960	13,189
Georgia	1,000*	6,000	7,503	10,120	12,625	15,921	19,071	22,846
Idaho	40*	160	497	1,060	2,232	3,982	4,500	4,513
Illinois	19,037	22,255	23,164	26,313	29,384	36,599	47,766	45,955
Indiana	11,826	13,578	13,278	15,617	17,267	17,209	21,847	21,459
Iowa	11,994	21,598	26,567	28,694	27,598	27,660	24,585	22,450
Kansas	1,159	7,780	12,232	11,513	13,467	16,989	19,141	16,904
Kentucky	4,000*	6,764	9,041	9,960	11,100	13,348	15,323	18,802
Louisiana ...	625	2,025	2,673	4,157	6,286	8,966	12,173	14,830
Maine	6,007	6,934	7,517	6,445	7,457	7,020	6,547	6,156
Maryland	1,905	3,125	3,826	5,127	5,514	6,675	8,745	8,638
Massachusetts	8,106	8,595	10,324	13,575	15,321	19,085	26,229	24,769
Michigan	10,249	13,949	15,990	15,564	17,987	24,302	34,552	32,716
Minnesota ...	3,775	5,215	8,847	10,586	15,157	19,575	22,169	21,080
Mississippi ...	2,500*	5,569	7,321	8,156	10,166	11,962	15,138	14,773
Missouri	7,146	10,447	13,785	16,201	18,365	21,126	24,200	26,423
Montana	60*	161	624	1,214	2,250	7,215	6,422	5,195
Nebraska	521	4,100	10,555	9,463	11,099	14,873	14,400	13,760
Nevada	55	197	251	324	489	704	794	886
New Hampshire	3,781	3,460	3,114	2,970	3,040	3,047	3,051	2,945
New Jersey ...	2,820	3,477	4,465	6,689	12,087	17,440	25,555	26,984
New Mexico ...	50*	147	472	966	1,474	2,752	3,400	3,798
New York	28,310	30,730	31,703	34,848	45,074	61,703	82,204	80,553
North Carolina ..	1,415	4,130	7,067	7,387	11,216	16,852	23,375	24,530
North Dakota ..	100*	286	1,982	4,083	7,387	8,975	8,856	7,262
Ohio	21,626	23,684	25,156	26,017	27,841	33,751	41,432	43,671
Oklahoma				2,343	9,473	15,389	19,807	20,204
Oregon	340*	1,314	2,566	3,742	4,453	7,778	6,208	7,296
Pennsylvania ...	17,612	21,375	24,493	29,390	35,496	44,111	57,716	60,963
Rhode Island ..	673	1,295	1,378	1,913	2,371	2,971	4,026	3,788
South Carolina ..	528	3,171	4,364	5,564	6,968	9,699	13,398	15,042
South Dakota ..	**	**	4,640	4,802	6,065	7,853	8,943	7,837
Tennessee ...	3,000*	5,954	8,228	9,195	10,286	13,277	18,331	20,147
Texas	1,500*	4,361	10,880	15,020	20,742	29,001	35,667	45,204
Utah	340*	517	680	1,466	2,369	3,904	4,452	4,417
Vermont	4,296	4,326	4,400	3,742	3,257	2,902	2,978	2,653
Virginia	2,500*	4,873	7,523	8,836	10,443	14,271	16,477	17,734
Washington ...	140*	560	1,610	3,321	7,170	9,877	11,140	10,583
West Virginia ..	2,283	4,134	5,491	7,179	8,782	11,221	15,837	14,252
Wisconsin	8,795	10,115	12,037	13,063	14,729	17,094	20,239	20,553
Wyoming	10*	49	259	570	1,109	2,232	2,751	2,551

* Estimated by the NEA Research Division.

** South Dakota reported as part of North Dakota.

Sources: Reports of the Commissioner of Education and Biennial Surveys of Education, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

TABLE VII. PUPIL ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY STATES, 1870-1940

	1870	1880	1890	1900
Continental United States ..	7,561,582	9,867,595	12,722,631	15,503,110
Alabama	141,312	179,490	301,615	376,423
Arizona	4,212	7,989	16,504
Arkansas	69,927	81,972	223,071	314,662
California	91,332	158,765	221,756	269,736
Colorado	4,357	22,119	65,490	117,555
Connecticut	113,588	119,694	126,505	155,228
Delaware	20,058	27,823	31,434	36,895
District of Columbia	15,157	26,439	36,906	46,519
Florida	14,000	39,315	92,472	108,874
Georgia	49,578	236,533	381,297	482,673
Idaho	906	5,834	14,311	36,669
Illinois	672,787	704,041	778,319	958,911
Indiana	450,057	511,283	512,955	564,807
Iowa	341,938	426,057	493,267	566,223
Kansas	89,777	231,434	399,322	389,582
Kentucky	178,457	276,000	399,660	500,294
Louisiana	57,639	77,642	120,253	196,169
Maine	152,600	149,827	139,676	130,918
Maryland	115,683	162,431	184,251	222,373
Massachusetts	273,661	306,777	371,492	474,891
Michigan	292,466	362,556	427,032	504,985
Minnesota	113,983	180,248	280,960	399,207
Mississippi	117,000	236,654	334,158	386,507
Missouri	330,070	482,986	620,314	719,817
Montana	1,657	4,270	16,980	39,430
Nebraska	23,265	92,549	240,300	288,227
Nevada	3,106	9,045	7,387	6,676
New Hampshire	71,957	64,341	59,813	65,688
New Jersey	169,430	204,961	234,072	322,575
New Mexico	1,320	4,755	18,215	36,735
New York	1,028,110	1,031,593	1,042,160	1,209,574
North Carolina	115,000	252,612	322,533	400,452
North Dakota	1,660	13,718	35,543	77,686
Ohio	719,372	729,499	797,489	829,160
Oklahoma	99,602
Oregon	21,000	37,533	63,254	89,405
Pennsylvania	834,614	937,310	1,020,522	1,151,880
Rhode Island	34,000	40,604	52,774	67,231
South Carolina	66,056	134,072	201,260	281,891
South Dakota	*	*	78,043	98,822
Tennessee	140,000	300,217	447,950	485,354
Texas	63,504	220,000	466,872	659,598
Utah	16,992	24,326	37,279	73,042
Vermont	65,384	75,328	65,608	65,964
Virginia	131,088	220,736	342,269	370,595
Washington	5,000	14,780	55,964	115,104
West Virginia	76,999	142,850	193,064	232,343
Wisconsin	265,285	299,457	351,723	445,142
Wyoming	450	2,907	7,052	14,512

* Included in North Dakota.

Sources: Biennial Surveys of Education, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

TABLE VII. PUPIL ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY STATES, 1870-1940—(Continued)

	1910	1920	1930	1940
Continental United States ..	17,813,852	21,578,316	25,678,015	25,433,542
Alabama	424,611	569,940	622,988	686,767
Arizona	31,312	76,505	103,806	110,205
Arkansas	395,978	483,172	456,185	465,339
California	368,391	696,238	1,068,683	1,181,106
Colorado	168,798	220,232	240,482	221,409
Connecticut	190,355	261,463	319,453	281,032
Delaware	35,950	38,483	42,360	44,046
District of Columbia	55,774	65,298	80,965	96,170
Florida	148,089	225,160	346,434	369,214
Georgia	555,794	690,918	713,290	737,979
Idaho	76,168	115,192	120,947	120,987
Illinois	1,002,687	1,127,560	1,395,907	1,248,827
Indiana	531,459	566,288	667,379	671,364
Iowa	510,661	514,521	554,655	503,481
Kansas	389,746	406,880	431,166	376,349
Kentucky	494,863	535,332	588,354	604,064
Louisiana	263,617	354,079	434,557	473,020
Maine	144,278	137,641	154,455	163,640
Maryland	238,393	241,618	277,459	287,225
Massachusetts	535,869	623,586	759,492	700,305
Michigan	541,501	691,674	970,582	970,188
Minnesota	440,083	503,597	551,741	512,224
Mississippi	469,137	412,670	595,449	594,799
Missouri	707,817	672,483	656,073	700,640
Montana	66,141	126,576	120,337	107,302
Nebraska	281,375	311,821	325,216	276,188
Nevada	10,200	14,114	18,041	20,746
New Hampshire	63,972	64,205	74,240	75,697
New Jersey	429,797	594,780	792,012	716,527
New Mexico	56,304	81,399	102,084	132,589
New York	1,422,969	1,719,841	2,141,479	2,227,870
North Carolina	520,404	691,249	866,939	886,484
North Dakota	139,802	168,283	169,277	140,126
Ohio	838,080	1,020,663	1,277,636	1,213,978
Oklahoma	422,399	589,282	682,650	611,818
Oregon	118,412	151,028	202,595	188,876
Pennsylvania	1,282,965	1,610,459	1,937,433	1,851,780
Rhode Island	80,061	93,501	118,704	114,161
South Carolina	340,415	478,045	469,370	481,750
South Dakota	126,253	146,955	165,624	136,447
Tennessee	521,753	619,852	627,747	648,131
Texas	821,631	1,035,648	1,308,028	1,328,822
Utah	91,611	117,406	138,046	136,519
Vermont	66,615	61,785	65,976	64,911
Virginia	402,109	505,190	562,956	568,131
Washington	215,688	291,053	344,731	331,409
West Virginia	276,458	346,256	395,505	452,821
Wisconsin	464,311	465,243	564,022	535,880
Wyoming	24,584	43,112	54,505	56,199

Scope of the Schools

In the following three paragraphs, the Commission on Teacher Education described the scope of the American schools:

The American school is the unit in our organized system of education. There are approximately 240,000 elementary and secondary schools throughout the country, all but about 15,000 publicly controlled. These schools vary greatly in many respects, not only from one community to another, but also within a particular community. Some have but a room or two, often poorly furnished; others occupy costly plants complete with shops, studios, gymnasiums, swimming pool, auditorium, and all sorts of special facilities. Some have many pupils and teachers; in others a handful of children and a single teacher constitute the group. In one school the children will represent a full crosssection of a cosmopolitan community; in another they will come predominantly from some single social class, are all white or black, well to do or underprivileged, native or foreign born, boys or girls. Again, a given school may include few or many age groups of children, may have poorly or splendidly prepared teachers, may be well or ill equipped with books and other aids to learning. Most of our schools are publicly financed and controlled, but many are under private auspices, often those of some religious body.

American schools also differ a good deal as to purposes and programs. Some are general, some specialized in character. Many still aim largely at teaching the traditional three R's; others are concerned with child growth in numerous aspects and offer a rich variety of educational experience. Schools are far from alike with respect to the way children respond to them: some are of such character that their attendants hate them; others provide an atmosphere, a stimulation, and a kind of human relationship that make learning a joyous thing.

Some school differences reflect variations in local circumstance and in judgment as to principles of organization. For obvious reasons schools tend to be smaller in sparsely populated rural areas than in urban districts. While there are subjects of study suitable and important for all young Americans, there are others—such as practical agriculture or airplane construction—that find clear justification only in particular places. Moreover, the handling of common subjects will properly reflect the varying experiences that children in different communities will customarily have had. It is appropriate for health study in the goitre belt to give special attention to that disease. On the organizational side,

the customary grouping of grades with reference to certain age spans seems reasonable, although it must be admitted that opinions differ as to where lines should be drawn. A school in one part of town may quite properly differ in its arrangements from one located elsewhere; often specialization in vocational training seems desirable. There are other variations in practice that are more debatable. Sometimes well established general principles of excellence are not followed. But on the other hand the needs of pupils and communities are not everywhere the same, nor are the capacities of teachers and the supply of equipment; and the purposes and practices of the schools should evidently reflect differences in these regards.³

Men and Women Teachers

According to the 1940 census, over 300,000 men were engaged in the teaching profession in the United States, as compared with 800,000 women. Although women predominate in the faculties of all types of schools except colleges and universities, a large percentage of the high school teachers are men (42.26 per cent). About three fourths of the members of college and university faculties are men (76.99 per cent). Moreover, a large number of the teachers engaged in elementary schools are men (11.67 per cent). The comparisons are clearly revealed in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII. MEN AND WOMEN IN VARIOUS GRADES AND TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Schools	Men	Women	Total	Per cent men	Per cent women
Public elementary schools..	67,140	508,060	575,200	11.67	88.33
Private elementary schools..	3,871	60,976	64,847	5.67	94.33
Public secondary schools...	126,837	173,440	300,277	42.26	57.74
Private secondary schools..	11,547	18,583	30,130	38.33	61.67
Colleges and universities...	80,936	24,176	105,112	76.99	23.01
Normal schools.....	4,946	5,737	10,683	46.30	53.70

Percentages computed from data given in *The Biennial Survey of Education, 1939-40*.

Table IX shows where the men serve, as well as where the women serve. It is to be noted that the popular fields of service

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 102-104.

for men are in the colleges, universities, and professional schools (including teachers colleges and normal schools, where teachers are trained) and in the secondary schools (the high schools, public and private). However, over one-fifth of the men teachers are serving in public elementary schools. The major field of service for women, on the other hand, is in the elementary school, although as Table VIII reveals, there are more women than men teachers in both secondary schools and teachers colleges and normal schools.

TABLE IX. PERCENTAGES OF MEN AND WOMEN TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF SCHOOLS IN 1940 *

Type of School	Per cent of all men teachers	Per cent of all women teachers
Kindergarten and elementary schools:		
Public	22	63
Private	1	8
Secondary schools:		
Public	42	22
Private	4	2
Normal schools and teachers colleges	2	1
Colleges, universities and professional schools	27	3
Other types of schools.....		
Total	2	1
	100	100
Base (Total number of individuals) ..	300,905	801,078

A conclusion that we might safely draw is that there are opportunities for men and women at all levels of the American educational system. Men who are interested in elementary education can find teaching opportunities that will lead to school principalships and superintendencies. On the other hand, women who are interested in teaching certain subject-matter fields will find ample opportunities in both secondary schools and colleges. The Englishman is surprised to find that so many of the elementary school teachers and so many members

* Reproduced from "Teachers Are Needed," Vocational Division Leaflet No. 14, U. S. Office of Education.

of our high school and college faculties in America are women. In the older countries teaching is a "man's profession" almost to the exclusion of women. In America, because the women teachers outnumber the men, there is, unfortunately, a common disposition to regard teaching as a woman's profession. Actually, the great scientists, inventors, writers, and artists in America are predominately men who serve as professors in our institutions of higher learning.

Opportunities in Teaching

Any properly qualified person interested in becoming a teacher will never lack for opportunities. We need teachers in the specialized types of schools—kindergartens, elementary schools, junior high schools, high schools, junior colleges, colleges and universities, vocational schools, studios and conservatories, and in special schools for special groups, such as schools for the deaf, the blind, and the mentally deficient. In addition, there are a variety of allied vocations that are usually open only to experienced teachers, such as the positions of school principal, supervisor, or superintendent, department head in high school or college, college dean, or president, etc. Also, there are a number of vocations closely allied to teaching, such as school librarian, school psychologist, school architect, school health worker (physician, dentist, or nurse), for which teaching is almost a necessary preliminary stage. Likewise, county agents, home demonstrators, 4-H Club leaders, and extension specialists of all sorts (livestock, crop, farm management, nutrition, clothing, home management, etc.) are actually teachers and consequently need professional training and experience. And the same can be said of visiting teachers, attendance officials, guidance personnel, placement officials, deans of boys and girls and men and women, recreational leaders, etc. Also, there are many semi-teaching positions open only to experienced teachers, such as curriculum experts, research workers, and school statisticians. More often than not, the Boy Scout and Girl Scout executives, the fraternity and sorority field representatives, and the foundation managers are ex-school teachers.

The Dictionary of Occupational Titles classifies teachers as follows:

<i>Code</i>	<i>Classification and Duties</i>
0-02.41	Teacher, drama . . . offers work in dramatic acting, diction and stage.
0-04.51	Teacher, art . . . directs instruction in design, painting, and other art.
0-11.50	Teacher, college . . . conducts college or university classes.
0-24.31	Teacher, music . . . gives individual or group instruction in music.
0-30.11	Teacher, grade or grammar school . . . teaches in grades 1-8.
0-31.01	Teacher, high school . . . teaches pupils in grades 8-12.
0-30.02	Teacher, kindergarten . . . teaches children from 4 to 6 years of age.
0-32.01	Teacher, blind . . . instructs in Braille and other work for the blind.
0-32.02	Teacher, oral-deaf . . . teaches deaf and dumb persons (children) to read lips.
0-32.03	Teacher, mentally deficient . . . develops manual skills in pupils.
0-32.04	Occupational therapist . . . teaches handicrafts to patients in hospitals.
0-32.20	Tutor . . . gives private lessons usually to children in their homes.
0-32.30	Teacher, vocational training . . . teaches trade subjects such as machine shop work, automotive repair, sheet metal work or other vocational pursuits.
0-32.92	Instructor, bridge . . . teaches the game of bridge.
0-32.93	Instructor, military . . . teaches military science.
0-32.94	Teacher, Americanization . . . helps the foreign-born with citizenship knowledge.
0-37.95	Teacher, elocution . . . teaches the technique of public speaking.
0-32.97	Educational supervisor, penal institution . . . directs the complete program of education in a penal institution.
0-39.81	Director, educational . . . in industry, plans and administers training programs to promote efficiency of new employees in a company.
0-45.61	Instructor, dancing . . . teaches the technique of various types of dancing.
0-57.21	Athletic coach . . . instructs pupils in competitive school sports.
0-57.41	Instructor, physical . . . organizes physical activities.
0-57.45	Instructor, riding . . . teaches horsemanship.
0-69.95	Examination scorer, college . . . a student who corrects examination papers.

A perusal of the above classification will convince almost anyone that teaching is the greatest of all professions. Moreover, the person who attains eminence in any other field—law, medicine, theology, science, or even business—will likely find himself in the teacher's role sooner or later. Unquestionably, he will lecture and write, presenting his ideas to others, and

oftentimes he will accept an appointment in an institution of higher learning.

As a matter of fact, most men who specialize in any line ultimately become teachers. As Wilson has observed, "whatever may be its wider nominal purposes, *the graduate school is a place where professors are engaged in the process of training other prospective professors*. The largest number of those in training will become teachers rather than researchers."⁴ It is commonly estimated that over 70 per cent of the recipients of the highest scholastic degree, the doctor of philosophy, become college teachers.

At the initial stage, it is not necessary for one to know his exact destination in the teaching profession. In fact, time alone will tell. However, it will be necessary during the preparatory stage to make certain choices, especially if one is interested in becoming a teacher in a specialized type of school. Whether one is to become an elementary school teacher or a high school teacher must be decided before one has gone very far in the professional course of study. On the other hand, high school teaching is generally conceded to be a good beginning for a prospective college teacher. Here the prospective professor can test his aptitudes and abilities, perfect his techniques of teaching under expert supervision, and render a decision as to his teaching potentialities before he has invested too much time and money in advanced training. Usually, the teacher-training institution has a number of guidance experts engaged in the business of helping students to make the proper choices and directing them along the proper paths. Many books and pamphlets are designed to assist the student in his final selection.

The final choice as to the field of endeavor within the teaching profession will depend upon a number of factors, especially one's personality, one's interests, one's aptitudes, and one's opportunities. Some persons could teach small children who could not teach older children, and vice versa. Some persons could teach adults who could not teach children, and vice versa. Some students are more interested in subject-matter

⁴ Logan Wilson, *The Academic Man*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1942, p. 34.

fields than in the age of the children to be taught. Obviously, they will drift into high school or college teaching. Some students are more scholarly than others and, consequently, may, in time, rise to the graduate levels of instruction. Nor should the question of opportunities for employment and placement be neglected. Although, as indicated above, there are opportunities at every level and in every field, there are greater shortages of teachers, and consequently greater opportunities, in some fields than in others, and in some areas than in others.

The Amount of Preparation Necessary

One of the factors that must be seriously considered by many investigators is the amount of preparation necessary to teach at the various levels. In each state a teacher must secure a teacher's certificate to teach in the public schools. Generally, the teachers in private schools are expected to have professional certificates. Unfortunately, these certificates are not transferable from one state to another. It is necessary for the prospective teacher to ascertain the amount of preparation required at the various educational levels in the state of expected employment, or in the several states under consideration as desired places for future employment. The following summary will prove helpful in getting an over-all view:

<i>Elementary Schools</i>	<i>Number of states</i>
No definite scholarship requirement mentioned.....	6
4 years of high school.....	2
High school and less than 1 year of college.....	2
1 year of college.....	7
2 years of college.....	11
3 years of college.....	7
4 years of college.....	13
Total	48

Secondary Schools

Bachelor's degree (standard requirement).

1 year of graduate work (required by a few states and by 10 per cent of all city high schools.) ⁵

⁵ "Teachers Are Needed," Vocational Leaflet No. 14, U. S. Office of Education.

Colleges and Universities

For Instructors—the Master's degree, involving one or more years of graduate instruction.

For Assistant Professors—the Doctor's degree or equivalent, involving three or more years of graduate instruction.

For Associate Professors and Professors—the Doctor's degree or equivalent, and excellence in performance at the lower ranks.

The Acute Shortage of Teachers

At the time this book was written there was an acute shortage of teachers. Jobs were going begging. Placement bureaus at institutions of higher learning had exhausted their lists of available graduates before the employment season had fairly started. Commercial teachers' agencies were going out of business because it was no longer necessary for anyone to pay a fee to find a teaching vacancy. As a matter of fact, most states had been compelled to issue emergency certificates to individuals who could not meet the qualifications exacted of the candidates for professional certificates.

Moreover, there is ample evidence that this state of affairs will continue to exist for some time. The end of the war has brought a tremendous demand for education in all fields. Consequently, the opportunities for teachers are unprecedented. While it is true that many teachers have returned from the armed services and the essential industries (where they were attracted by exorbitant wartime wages), the demand will exceed the supply for many years to come. As stated before, if the upward trend of the birth rate continues, there will be more elementary and secondary school students to teach in 1960 than ever before. In addition, there will be a big adult education program. All of which means that good teachers will have untold opportunities to make real progress in the finest of all professions.

STUDY AIDS

1. What profession engages the services of the largest number of persons?

2. Debate the issue: Resolved, that the demand for teachers will increase during the next decade.
3. In determining the demand for teachers, what proportion of the total population should be considered?
4. Will the equalization of educational opportunities in the United States mean more teachers? At what level or levels?
5. At what educational levels do the men teachers outnumber the women teachers? Why?
6. Should a man enter a field of service where the men are in the minority?
7. Should men prepare to teach in the elementary schools?
8. Are men teachers as numerous in the United States as in European countries? Why, or why not?
9. Make a list of positions, other than teaching, usually open only to experienced teachers.
10. Why are outstanding persons in all vocational realms frequently employed as teachers?
11. Is it necessary at the initial stages to know at what level one will teach? If not, how soon should one decide?
12. Investigate the shortage of teachers in your state.
13. Where does the supply equal or exceed the demand? What subject areas hold out the greatest promise for placement and advancement?

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CHAPTER 4

ATTRIBUTES OF THE SUCCESSFUL TEACHER

The world stands out on either side
No wider than the heart is wide ;
Above the world is stretched the sky
No higher than the soul is high.

—EDNA ST. VINCENT MILLAY

Before a person undertakes the task of teaching others, he must ask himself an important question: Am I worthy of the job? If he is not, he must either give up the prospect of teaching, or prepare himself more fully.

Everyone recognizes the fact that the teacher's total personality is important. The good teacher is not only a master of his subject and classroom procedures; he is, first and foremost, a worthwhile person. A teacher's general attitude toward life, his manner of meeting situations, his way of thinking, his pleasures, his joys, his friendships, his prejudices, his fears, his enemies, his very habits of speech and dress are as inevitably a part of his teaching as any subject-matter or technical method he may employ. Verily, he teaches by example as well as by precept. Moreover, the teacher's outside life enters the classroom in every illustration, application, and anecdote he uses. In full recognition of the fact that none of us is perfect, what obligation do we owe our students?

Character

In this topsy-turvy world, the teacher must, above all, be a person of principle. The evils of the day—expediency, propriety, opportunism, insincerity, and hypocrisy—must pass by him. Many persons are tempted to do what promises to be of use rather than what is right. Many are more inclined to

be proper than sensible in their conduct, or are willing to take advantage of circumstances to promote their own interests or the interests of their set. In their efforts to be popular, many unconsciously substitute deception for candor; and pretenders, impostors, liars, and cheats consciously practice deception to gain their own ends. Fortunately, very few of these reprobates seek positions in the classroom. Nevertheless, all of us are subjected daily to these same temptations.

The effects of deception are never the same. In some instances the deceiver hurts no one but himself. Usually, he hurts himself more than he hurts others. But, these statements are not true of the teacher. He cannot teach something he does not believe without hurting his pupils. Sooner or later, the pupils will discover the deception. Then, in their innocence, they may assume that the art of deception was the real lesson and emulate their master.

It is always heartening to hear how others met and overcame temptation in this and other realms. Not all of the heroic acts of World War II were confined to the battlefield. In February, 1942, the school teachers of Norway were ordered to join the Nazi Teachers' Union and to teach Nazism. Also, all Norwegian children 10 to 18 years of age were ordered to join the Nazi Youth Organization. The teachers refused! When the order was repeated with threats, the teachers resigned from their positions. The result of this refusal was concentration camps, torture, deportation, and slave labor for thousands of teachers.

American newspapers carried accounts of the "death voyage." After severe maltreatment in concentration camps, five hundred men were transported along the Arctic coast in an old, open, condemned ship to the Norwegian-Finnish frontier. Those who survived were then sentenced to hard labor for nine months under abominable conditions. At the end of the period, they were replaced by new contingents of unbroken teachers.

What enabled these teachers to withstand the punishment? Where did they get their strength? How could a handful of unarmed teachers in a defeated country defy the bullies and armies of the conquering Nazis? Every teacher of children

everywhere should know the answers to these simple questions. It was a contest of principles, ideals, and convictions *versus* opportunism and expediency.

Some of the finest statements of principles in all history and literature are now coming out of Norway. We submit two samples. When a sick and suffering teacher was released from a concentration camp to die, he said: "If I had ten lives, I would gladly sacrifice them all to prevent our youth from being brought up in a way which would make them like unto those at whose mercy we have been placed."

At the time of the "death voyage" and at a time when 1,500 teachers were in concentration camps, the Norwegian teachers read the following declaration to their students:

One of our dearest national songs tells us that "every child's soul we unfold is another province added to our country." Together with church and home we teachers have the responsibility to see to it that this unfolding occurs in Christian love and understanding and in conformity with our national cultural traditions. We have been charged with the task of giving you children the knowledge and training for the thorough work which is necessary if every single one of you is to receive complete development as a human being, so that you can fulfill your place in society to the benefit of others and yourself. This is the duty with which we have been intrusted by the Norwegian people, and the Norwegian people can call us to account for it.

We know also that the sum of the knowledge and will-to-work in a country is the greatest and most lasting of all that country's assets. It is our duty to hold a protective hand over these resources. We would betray our calling if we did not put all our strength into this task, especially during the trying times which we are now experiencing. Every curtailment in the school's activity is an undermining of the foundation upon which our people's future is to be built.

However, the teacher's duty is not only to give the children knowledge. He must also teach the children to have faith in and to earnestly desire that which is true and just. Therefore, he cannot, without betraying his calling, teach anything against his conscience. He who does so sins both against the pupils he is supposed to lead and against himself. This, I promise you, I shall not do.

I will not call upon you to do anything which I regard as wrong. Nor will I teach you anything which I regard as not conforming with the truth. I will, as I have done heretofore, let my conscience be my

guide, and I am confident that I shall then be in step with the great majority of the people who have intrusted to me the duties of an educator.

In commenting on this statement, Aase Gruda Skard, Norwegian refugee, says:

This credo will be the "charter" for future education in Norway. It is the program that the whole people has adopted. Like other great expressions of ideals and purposes, such as the Declaration of Independence, the Gettysburg Address, the Four Freedoms pronouncement, the Atlantic Charter, it is signed with blood. Through the darkness of Nazi occupation, from concentration camps and medieval torture chambers comes to the world the clear voice of steadfast democratic ideals. Norwegian children are growing up with this voice ringing in their ears.

In describing the plight of American adolescents, boys and girls in the 'teen age, W. C. Trow, a psychologist, wrote:

. . . they [adolescents] look upon the world through the lens of their increasing intelligence and slightly enlarged experience, and it crumbles and falls apart of itself. They discover misery, cruelty, and selfishness where they have been led to expect self-sacrifice and idealism. Their heroes, they find, have been a little careless about one or another of the conventional virtues. . . . If they have been brought up to believe in the symbols of religion rather than their significance, they feel that they have been tricked. Disappointments, conflicts, and thwarting of circumstances lie in wait for them on every side, in the face of which evasion, retreat, regression, submission to one fiction or another may result in stunted, maladjusted personalities.¹

Clearly, the sins of their elders are a plague upon the members of the younger generation. It is to be hoped that the situation is not as bad as it has been described. Nevertheless, we may as well recognize the fact that the fine teachings of sanctimonious hypocrites (inside or outside the classroom) will not solve the problems of the world. Until persons who live the lives they extoll teach our children, youth, and adults, the teachings will be in vain.

¹ W. C. Trow, *Educational Psychology*, Boston: The Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931, pp. 448-449.

Recently the then president of the United States Chamber of Commerce, Eric A. Johnston, wrote:

No matter what fine plans for the government of world affairs may be set up, the world will never be any better than the men and women who compose the population. The most elaborate and ingenious schemes for guaranteeing peace and spreading culture and prosperity are doomed to failure if the people who put the schemes into operation are brutalized, rotten with hates, and devoid of honor. The effort to end forever the periodic orgies of mass killing called war cannot be carried through to success by people who hold human life in contempt.²

Ideals

We are always appraising the ideals of others. When we see a man devoting himself to real issues, working for a cause, choosing good companions, reading with a purpose, listening to the best of music and drama, and exhibiting kindness, patience, and fortitude in his daily life, we say, there is a man of high ideals. In contrast, when we see the drifter, giving vent to petty sentiments and small grievances, bursting with egoism, conceit, and self-praise, killing time with the noisy radio, poor literature, and much loose talk, we say, there is a man of low ideals, regardless of his position in life.

In the most important sense of the term, all men are idealists; that is, all men make sacrifices for chosen ends. Professor Otto, the eminent philosopher, reminds us that all men are trying to realize ideals:

They may not be ideal ideals; that is, they may not be what some moral or religious or other standards would require; but they are ends for which other ends are sacrificed, which is the essence of an ideal. And when a man ridicules another for being too idealistic, he does so on the tacit assumption that his own ideal is standard.³

As the great William James pointed out,

Mere ideals are the cheapest things in life. Everybody has them in some shape or other, personal or general, sound or mistaken, low or high, and the most worthless sentimentalists and dreamers, drunkards,

² Eric A. Johnston, in the public press.

³ M. C. Otto, *Things and Ideals*, New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1924, p. 47.

shirks and verse-makers, who never show a grain of effort, courage, or endurance, possibly have them on the most copious scale.

Ideals to be of value need not be fully realized. The ideals of the greatest social and political revolutions of modern times—liberty, equality, fraternity—have never been attained. Carl Schurz said, "Ideals are like stars; you will not succeed in touching them with your hands, but like the seafaring man on the desert of waters, you choose them as your guides, and, following them, you reach your destiny."

Ernest Dimnet observes :

Look at the people whom your better judgment and higher aspirations rightly cause you to envy. you will find that they are distinguished in three ways : the superiority of their thoughts, their enjoyment of beauty, or their efforts to raise themselves and others to a higher moral level. The magic spell which leads the world belongs to thinkers, to artists, to moralists and religionists. And what makes such people great also makes them enviable and happy. Whatever their outward circumstances may be, we know that their interior life cannot be a failure.⁴

Occasionally ideals are of such intensity that they enable men to withstand the "herd" standards of their set, and the demands of associates and colleagues. Of such calibre were Washington, Lincoln, and Wilson. A plausible explanation is that "at this stage the drama is performed not before the limited spectators who crowd the house, but before an imaginary gallery peopled by the prophets, priests, and seers in whose ideal presence the individual has chosen to live."

That there are many such people, and should be many more, is evidenced by the concern mental hygienists have for ideals. Roback dedicates his monumental work on the Psychology of Character :

To the few who still are governed by a principle
Instead of groveling before a policy,
To whom the timeless values are
Of greater import than the "paying" value;
And whose vision cleaves the waves of trivial sham,
And steers the ship of progress
In its never-ending course.⁵

⁴ Ernest Dimnet, *What We Live By*, London: Jonathan Cape, 1932, p. 15.

⁵ A. A. Roback, *Psychology of Character*, New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1927.

Personality Traits

Several years ago Professor Frank W. Hart of the University of California secured the reactions of eight thousand high school seniors to their teachers. Among other things, he asked them to describe (1) the teacher they liked the "best," and (2) the teacher they liked the "least." For our present purpose we are merely interested in the personality traits listed by the students.

The teachers liked the "best" were described as being helpful, cheerful, happy, good-natured, jolly, humorous, friendly, companionable ("one of us"), impartial (shows no favoritism, has no "pets"), patient, kind, sympathetic, fair and square in dealing with pupils, considerate of the pupils' feelings in the presence of the class, courteous, frank ("straight from the shoulder"), sincere, "peppy" (i.e. full of vitality).

On the other hand, the teachers liked the "least" were described as being cross, crabby, grouchy, sarcastic, mean, partial (had "pets"), aloof, haughty, "snooty," overbearing, unreasonable, "hard-boiled," intolerant, ill-mannered, unfair, inconsiderate, careless, slipshod, changeable, inconsistent, unreliable, insincere.⁶

Charters and Waples made a monumental five-year study of the duties and traits of teachers. After much consideration a list of eighty-three traits of teachers was telescoped and reduced arbitrarily to the following twenty-five:

ADAPTABILITY.—Ability to make suitable, to fit, to adjust.

ATTRACTIVE PERSONAL APPEARANCE.—Pleasing outward look or aspect; pleasing mien; attractive build, carriage, and figure.

BREADTH OF INTEREST.—Wide or broad display of liberality on matters which concern or interest one.

CAREFULNESS.—The quality marked by the performance of activities with attention and concern; attentiveness; precision; caution.

CONSIDERATENESS.—Thoughtful regard for another's circumstance or feelings.

⁶ Frank W. Hart, *Teachers and Teaching*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1934.

COOPERATION.—The act of working together to one end, or of combining for a certain purpose; joint cooperation or endeavor.

DEPENDABILITY.—Being worthy of being depended upon; trustworthiness; reliability.

ENTHUSIASM.—Strong excitement or feeling on behalf of a cause or a subject; fervor.

FLUENCY.—Ready and easy flow of words or ideas, especially readiness and ease of speech or expression.

FORCEFULNESS.—Power to persuade, or convince, or impose obligation; vigorous.

GOOD JUDGMENT.—Power of recognizing the true or just relations between ideas; good sense; discernment; discretion.

HEALTH.—State of being hale, sound, or whole in body, mind, and soul.

HONESTY.—Fairness and straightforwardness of conduct, speech, etc.; integrity; sincerity; truthfulness; freedom from fraud or guile.

INDUSTRY.—Attention or devotion to any useful or productive pursuit, work, or task, manual or mental; earnest, steady, or constant application to business.

LEADERSHIP.—The state of being a guide, conductor, chief, commander, captain; state of going before to guide or show the way.

MAGNETISM.—The sympathetic personal quality that attracts or interests; attractiveness.

NEATNESS.—Strict order, cleanliness, nicety; freedom from dirt; tidiness.

OPEN-MINDEDNESS.—A state of freedom from prejudiced opinions; amenable to reason; accessibility to new ideas or new tenets; freedom from prejudices; liberality.

ORIGINALITY.—The exhibition of original thought and action; independently exercising one's own faculties; power of originating new or fresh ideas or methods.

PROGRESSIVENESS.—Tending to make improvement; advancement; disposition to encourage progress.

PROMPTNESS.—Adherence to the exact time of meeting one's obligations or performing one's duties; habit of promptness in fulfilling appointments.

REFINEMENT.—Free from what is coarse, rude, inelegant, or debasing; culture.

SCHOLARSHIP.—The sum of the mental attainments of a scholar; scholarly character or qualities; learning; erudition.

SELF-CONTROL.—The act, power, or habit of having one's faculties or energies, especially the inclinations and emotions, under control; self-command.

THRIFT.—Economical management; good husbandry; frugality.⁷

Although the typical teacher is no paragon of virtue, it must be admitted that highly *successful* teachers have many of the traits described above. On the other hand, one undesirable trait may vitiate many excellent ones. Certainly such a list is worthy of the closest study by the prospective teacher.

Anderson, Barr, and Bush also give the prospective teacher something to think about. They made a careful study of failures among public school teachers resulting in the following suggestive classification of the various sources of weakness:⁸

- Type 1. Lack of control over the technique of teaching. She may be ignorant of the science of teaching or unable to apply the principles. She does not know how to teach.
- Type 2. Lack of ability to maintain discipline and order. She fails to get attention, the room is in disorder.
- Type 3. Lack of mastery of subject-matter.
- Type 4. Lack of intelligence. She lacks the natural ability to cope with the situation.
- Type 5. Lack of effort. Whether because of lack of physical energy, or because of a constitutional dislike for work, she fails to put forth the necessary effort for success. She will probably not prepare her work, not look after routine details, not keep up the necessary records and reports, etc.
- Type 6. Lack of initiative. She may do everything she is told but nothing more. Quite incapable of acting upon general principles.
- Type 7. Lack of adaptability. She fails to adapt herself to the principal, the other teachers, the community, or the pupils. She is a potential trouble maker. She may be good enough in the classroom, but she fails to establish proper relations. . . . She is individualistic, generally disgruntled and antagonistic.
- Type 8. Lack of common sense. She fails to size up the situation. She lacks the good judgment to see that certain things and

⁷ W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

⁸ C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and M. Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work*, New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1925, pp. 333-34.

procedures are out of place. She either moves too rapidly or too slowly. She is always in difficulties.

- Type 9. Lack of physical ability. She is in ill-health, acknowledged or concealed. She may be nervous, irritable, or otherwise disagreeable. She may lack the physical energy to do good work.
- Type 10. Lack of standards. She does not know what is expected of her. She may be quite capable but does not yet know the accepted standards of good teaching.
- Type 11. Lack of ability to carry on. She becomes discouraged at the attitude of the principal, the poor work of the pupils, etc. She looks continually for new and better pastures.
- Type 12. Lack of singleness of purpose. She has too many outside interests—business, family, social obligations, etc. She is not willing to share with others the many extra burdens and assignments of the school.
- Type 13. Lack of sympathetic understanding of pupils. She fails to get their point of view, and thus takes wrong attitudes. She has lost all recollection of the pleasures, wishes, and hopes of childhood. She is out of sympathy with those things that children love and cherish most.
- Type 14. Lack of social background. She fails because of a limited social background. The community and the children may be rich in social experience and be aware of the difference. The children laugh at her.
- Type 15. Lack of knowledge of what pupils can do. She does not know what to expect of pupils, and has no notion of difficulty levels.
- Type 16. Lack of personality. She lacks force, spiritual, social, and physical. She fails to radiate enthusiasm. She does not attract the pupils nor engender their confidence.
- Type 17. Lack of moral standards. She is not honest with herself or other teachers. She fails to show moral stamina in her many personal relationships about the school or community.

Social Qualities

A successful teacher must like to work with persons. He must see the individual pupils as persons whose purposes require consideration and whose potentialities deserve encouragement. A good teacher has respect for others; he is able to see the individual as an entity, not merely as a representative

of some general category or other. As the Commission on Teacher Education notes:

... It is usual to classify human beings according to a variety of characteristics; and it is useful to know what is in general true of such groups as adolescents, girls, children of Mexican birth, Negroes, Catholics, rural youth, and youngsters from wealthy homes. Such knowledge can contribute notably to a sympathetic understanding of individuals. But it may also block such understanding by establishing stereotyped views with respect to the members of any given category. The fact is that the notions suggested by such phrases as "a first-grade child," "a Jew," "a New Englander"—or "a teacher"—have a habit of getting in the way of our really seeing and treating with individual persons as such. Often, moreover, the categorizing of persons has the effect of emphasizing differences in ways that encourage irrational prejudices, prejudices which in a nation as diversely peopled as ours, and in a world becoming more and more interdependent, are dangerous luxuries indeed. Respect for personality means that teachers must understand Tom and Mary as well as "children"; that they must see Pasquale and Frieda as individual young Americans and not just as "representatives of minority groups."⁹

A successful teacher must also be community-minded. Teachers who stand aloof from the life of the community and teachers who refuse to understand local customs and habits are doomed to failure in some degree. As the Commission aptly says,

... A merely expedient meeting of local demands, a dishonest pretending to locally esteemed "virtues," is destructive of personal integrity. ... On the other hand, for a teacher to insist uncompromisingly on the right "to be himself"—that is, the "self" he was when he arrived and which he assumes to be beyond improvement—is equally to court disaster. It is important then, that teachers should know how to establish friendly relations with the people of the community in which they work, and be able and willing to adopt their behavior courteously to local mores and folkways. They will then be likely to be accorded that reciprocal respect which will enable them to preserve and strengthen their essential integrity.¹⁰

⁹ *Teachers For Our Times*, A Statement of Purposes by the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1944, pp. 157-158.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 158.

Obviously, teachers who do not exemplify social sensitivity and responsibility in their own lives are less likely to promote their development in pupils. And, conversely, teachers who do exemplify these virtues will assume positions of genuine leadership in community affairs in addition to their wholesome influence on the children in the classroom. But, says the Commission, "teachers should not assume, not be led to suppose, that community leadership is either their right or obligation by virtue of their profession."¹¹

A successful teacher knows how to think and act. The ability to deal rationally with personal, professional, community, and other problems is the basis for both influence and tenure in the teaching profession. The teacher must be able to view things objectively, to hold conclusions in abeyance until all the facts are in, to be able to analyze the factors in a given situation and to reach a reasonable hypothesis for action. And, he must have the will to act when he is reasonably sure of his ground.

When necessary, as it usually is, the teacher should be willing and able to cooperate with others in both professional and community matters. School teachers cannot work in isolation from one another and from the community in which the school is located. The successful teacher senses and values the contributions that can be made to any given situation by children, colleagues, and laymen alike. Whereas all of these social qualities are desirable in any citizen, they are particularly important for a teacher who participates in the life of a complicated and changing civilization.

Scholarship

Does a good American have to be a scholar? What does Americanism involve? Obviously, a man can pay his taxes, obey the laws, respond to the draft, and bear arms in the defense of his country, without being much of a scholar. But, will these acts mean as much to him as they do to the man who knows the history of his country? Compare the illiterate

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 159.

man with the graduate of an American high school—who makes the better soldier? Which man is the better prepared to make a sacrifice or meet a crisis—the man who fights because he must or the man who defends the fundamental rights of man?

We can put our trust in the man who knows the story of the rights of man. The best soldier is the man who knows the great documents of American democracy: (1) the Sermon on the Mount (about 29 A.D.), wherein Jesus of Nazareth admonishes man to dedicate himself to the establishment of righteousness, mercy, and peace throughout the world; (2) the Magna Charta (1215), wrested from King John, which marked the passing of law by royal decree and the beginning of parliamentary legislation; (3) the Mayflower Compact (1620), wherein the Pilgrims sought to establish in their new home the basic rights which they had failed to attain in England; (4) the Declaration of Rights (England, 1689), which contains the germ of most later laws on religious freedom, liberty of the press, independence of judges, and free elections; (5) the Declaration of Independence (1776), which includes the fundamental statement of inalienable rights, “life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness,” and the idea that “governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed”; (6) the Constitution of the United States (1789), the deliberate creation of a sovereign people, limiting and defining the powers of their government in order to make their liberties secure; (7) the American Bill of Rights (1789-91), guaranteeing religious freedom, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, trial by jury, and orderly processes of law; (8) President Wilson’s Fourteen Points (1918), a milestone in the process of outlawing war and emphasizing the right of men everywhere to live peacefully together; and, lastly, (9) the Atlantic Charter (1941), a declaration by the representatives of two great democracies, setting forth the rights which all men throughout the world, not a limited few, should be able to enjoy and call their own.

The necessity of scholarship is recognized by the army officials of the United States. As a matter of fact, the Federal government rejected hundreds of thousands of illiterates—in-

terpreted to mean men who have not reached fourth or fifth grade scholastic requirements. The officers, most of whom are college or high school graduates, are sent to so-called "indoc-trination" schools to give them greater insight into the cause for which they were fighting.

Of the importance of the teacher's scholarship there can be no question. As Palmer has so ably said,

. . . our ideal teacher will need . . . an already accumulated wealth. These hungry pupils are drawing all their nourishment from us, and have we got it to give? They will be poor if we are poor; rich if we are wealthy. We are their source of supply. Every time we cut ourselves off from nutrition, we enfeeble them. And how frequently devoted teachers make this mistake! dedicating themselves so to the immediate needs of those about them that they themselves grow thinner each year. We all know the "teacher's face." It is meagre, worn, sacrificial, anxious, powerless. That is exactly the opposite of what it should be. The teacher should be the big bounteous being of the community. Other people may get along tolerably by holding whatever small knowledge comes their way. A moderate stock will pretty well serve their private turn. But that is not our case. Supplying a multitude, we need wealth sufficient for a multitude. We should then be clutching at knowledge on every side. Nothing must escape us. It is a mistake to reject a bit of truth because it lies outside our province. Some day we shall need it. All knowledge is our province.

In preparing a lecture I find I always have to work hardest on the things I do not say. The things I am sure to say I can easily get up. They are obvious and generally accessible. But they, I find, are not enough. I must have a broad background of knowledge which does not appear in speech. I have to go over my entire subject and see how the things I am to say look in their various relations, tracing out connections which I shall not present to my class. One might ask what is the use of this? Why prepare more matter than can be used? Every successful teacher knows. I cannot teach right up to the edge of my knowledge without a fear of falling off. My pupils discover this fear, and my words are ineffective. They feel the influence of what I do not say. One cannot precisely explain it; but when I move freely across my subject as if it mattered little on what part of it I rest, they get a sense of assured power which is compulsive and fructifying. The subject acquires consequence, their minds swell, and they are eager to enter regions of which they had not previously thought.

. . . We need not merely wealth, but an already accumulated wealth. At the moment when wealth is wanted it cannot be acquired. It should have been gathered and stored before the occasion rose. What is more pitiable than when a person who desires to be a benefactor looks in his chest and finds it empty? Special knowledge is wanted, or trained insight, or professional skill, or sound practical judgment; and the teacher who is called on has gone through no such discipline as assures these resources. . . . The plan of the Great Teacher, by which he took thirty years for acquisition and three for bestowal, is not unwise, provided that we too can say, "For their sakes I sanctify myself."¹²

Professional Qualities

In addition to other qualities already discussed—character, ideals, personality traits, social qualities, and scholarship—teachers must develop certain professional qualities. The virtues already discussed we could wish for everyone; the successful teacher must not only have these in greater degree than the layman, he must have certain additional special abilities. It cannot be supposed that any good citizen is capable of teaching school; the effective performance of a teacher's duties calls for professional training.

More important than knowledge of subject-matter is the understanding of the children to be taught. As the Commission on Teacher Education noted:

. . . Good judgment regarding the needs of children at different stages, their readiness for particular kinds of learning, and the ways whereby they may most effectively be helped may sometimes seem intuitive. But the biological, psychological, and sociological sciences offer an increasing store of tested knowledge bearing on these matters with which good teachers need to be familiar. A continuing study of what is known about the processes of child growth and development must evidently be characterized as one of the basic professional elements in teacher education. If the ends of democratic education are to be achieved, teachers must understand as much as possible about the purposes that animate young people, the needs to which they respond, and the various circumstances that condition their behavior.¹³

¹² George Herbert Palmer, "The Ideal Teacher," *Future Teachers of America*, pp. 56-60, Washington, D.C.: National Education Assn., 1942.

¹³ *Teachers for Our Times*, loc. cit., pp. 166-167.

Also, the teacher must have more than a sound social philosophy; he must have the know-how to realize the desirable ends. This takes more than a considerable degree of social understanding, important as this is to a comprehension of the problems that beset his pupils; he must know how to help his pupils attack and solve their problems and the problems of the community in general. "If this implies indoctrination, it is indoctrination that respects the truth and the personalities of those who are being taught, that relies on rational and friendly persuasion, not on cajolery or intimidation."¹⁴ This is an art that must be learned by doing—an essential part of professional training.

A successful teacher must know the role of the school. It is generally conceded today that the school is a society "made up of human beings—children, teachers, administrators—living and working together in common ends. A teacher can scarcely be considered excellent who is not functioning as a good citizen of that school society."¹⁵ Again, it takes professional training to enter into such a specialized society. The teacher must learn how to get along with pupils and how to cooperate with teachers and administrators. This is more than a test of social competence; it involves professional insight and understanding. "Good teachers will possess a sense of professional pride and solidarity that facilitates working together creatively under the guidance of common purposes and of the discipline that every given situation offers. . . . Good teachers will be adept at playing effective roles in groups where sound attitudes are being formed, fine habits developed, and patterns of cooperative endeavor perfected."¹⁶

Above all, a successful teacher must have enough professional insight to know whether or not he is "ringing the bell." He must know what he is aiming at, and he must know how to check his accomplishments. This is professionally known as the process of evaluation, involving as it does specialized knowledge of measurements, statistics, and other technical processes

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 169.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 170.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 170-171.

and devices, such as questionnaires, anecdotal records, check-lists, inventories, conferences, interviews, etc.

Thus, we see that the teacher must add professional competence to the more general qualifications extolled in the earlier portion of this chapter. In addition to specialized scholarship, he must know how to help children; he must understand their growth and development; he must have social understanding and skill in human relationships. And, finally, he must know how to evaluate his accomplishments, and how to help others evaluate their accomplishments.

Conclusion

When one contemplates the virtues desired in a teacher, one is reminded of the following much-used quotation:

Teachers are employed for purposes "vastly great." They must teach the science of health with all the learning but without the pay of the doctor; they must inculcate the principles of morality with all the impressive sincerity but without the sectarianism of the minister; they must be altogether more patient and discreet than God Almighty Himself, for He was "wroth" when He punished the wicked, whereas, if a teacher punishes in anger, he is guilty of an assault and battery; they must invent schemes to invert human nature, and make every good thing and thought enticing and every bad thing and thought abominably disgusting . . . they must tenderly moderate the zeal of the too ambitious, and inspire the dullest blockhead with a manly thirst for fame and knowledge; the incorrigibly uncouth and vicious, they must endow with the tastes, the instincts, and the manners of the refined and virtuous. And in short, they must turn all from the thousand paths that lead to indolence, ignorance and folly; and prepare them to find infallibly all the ways of pleasantness and all the paths of peace.¹⁷

Admittedly, this chapter is a counsel of perfection; no one can be expected to have these attributes in the abundance or to the degree indicated. Rather, these are the goals for teacher education. Nevertheless, unless the individual is interested in the quest for adequate degrees of competence in the various

¹⁷ A. P. Marble, 1887, quoted by Willard S. Elsbree on the title page of his book, *The American Teacher*, New York: American Book Co., 1939.

attributes herein mentioned, it is doubtful whether he should pursue further courses in teacher education.

The prospective teacher will be less frightened by a summary of prospective teacher qualifications printed in a recent publication of the U. S. Office of Education:

Teacher candidates and others in a professional classification should have the following general qualifications: (1) Ability to undertake special projects that involve individual initiative, imagination, and planning work; (2) qualities of leadership as evidenced by offices held in clubs, and participation in committee work and similar activities that require planning and executing work cooperatively with others; (3) ability to deal with people; (4) mental ability above the average; and (5) ability to do creditable college work. The public also demands in teachers certain character, cultural, and personality qualifications because teachers work in close contact with children, meet parents, and otherwise serve the community.¹⁸

STUDY AIDS

1. Why must the successful teacher possess sound character and high ideals?
2. Make a list of the personality traits of a successful teacher.
3. Describe the personality traits of the teacher you liked the best. The personality traits of your best teacher.
4. Why must a successful teacher be community-minded? cooperative?
5. What is scholarship? How important is it? Can it be acquired?
6. Why must a successful teacher know some biology? psychology? sociology? political economy?
7. Must a teacher be a paragon of virtues? Why, or why not?
8. Locate the description of a teacher in fiction and come to class prepared to read it aloud.

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THE TEACHER IN FICTION

Many books have been written about teachers—their experiences in their first years of teaching, problems met in small country schools, trials and tribulations with unruly children, the love and satisfaction found in the teaching profession. The following list of books is adapted from a list prepared by the Committee on Future Teachers of America of the Pennsylvania State Education Association. It is designed to give a broad background of reading for study and pleasure.

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CHAPTER 5

PROBLEMS IN TEACHER PREPARATION

Teachers are truly indispensable; . . . their quality is a matter of deep concern to us all.—COMMISSION ON TEACHER EDUCATION

The prospective teacher must face another problem: how to become a teacher. He may have the desire to teach, he may be convinced that the opportunities for service are adequate, he may have decided that the rewards and protection are sufficient, and that he has the qualities desired in teachers; but he may not know how teachers are recruited, prepared, certificated, and kept abreast of the advances in the profession. This chapter will assist him in answering some of his questions.

There should be no place in the classroom for the so-called teacher who is not interested in the job. Half-hearted teachers can do more harm than good; "those who are ignorant or misinformed, who dislike or misunderstand children, who are indifferent to the communities they serve or even contemptuous of them, and who do not comprehend the teaching art constitute a heavy social liability."¹

Such persons are unhappy themselves and, consequently, exert an unwholesome influence upon their pupils. They are a trial to their colleagues, influencing the morale of the other teachers and destroying the *esprit de corps*, the spirit that should bind the teachers of the school together. It is better for all concerned that such individuals eliminate themselves from consideration at the outset, before society has invested time and money in their training and before they have wasted their lives and talents in the wrong field of endeavor. And if they

¹ *Teachers for Our Times*, A Statement of Purposes by the Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1944, p. 145.

will not take the initiative, in the interests of society, they should be guided elsewhere.

Everyone is concerned with the calibre of the individual teacher. The development of the nation's children and the promotion of social well-being are largely in the hands of the nation's million teachers and the prospective teachers in training. It makes a difference who and what these teachers are.

The teachers, regardless of their natural endowments, are to a great degree what their professional training makes them. If we would improve the teachers, we must improve the education and professional training they receive. "To improve teacher education is to improve teaching; to improve teaching is to improve the schools; to improve the schools is to strengthen the next generation; to strengthen the next generation is a social duty of the first magnitude."²

The importance of teacher education is realized when we are told that approximately one-fifth of the total college and university students of every kind are prospective teachers. In 1939-40, a normal year, there were 285,000 prospective teachers in our colleges and universities in the total student body of 1,500,000. "No other class of student, identifiable in terms of occupational purpose, is so numerous. Quantitatively speaking, at any rate, *teacher education is the number one job of American colleges and universities*. From the point of view of potential significance for national well-being, it is at least not inferior to the others."³

In the typical community of 10,000 population in the United States, 75 persons are teachers and 113 are college and university students of whom 22 are prospective teachers.⁴ Certainly this group of prospective teachers is worthy of our most serious study.

Who Are Teachers?

Numerous studies have been made of the social composition of the teaching population. Probably the most significant find-

² *Ibid.*, p. 24.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-7. (*Italics mine.*)

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 7.

ing is that teachers as a class constitute a fair cross section of the society supporting the schools in which they teach.

It is not easy to discover any race, nationality, or religious group included in the population of the nation which does not have its representatives in the teaching profession. To be sure, local prejudices are likely to be sharply reflected when teachers are appointed or advanced. But as school administration has achieved a firmer professional status, as minority groups have grown in size and influence, and as tolerance and mutual appreciation have been developed throughout the population irrational barriers have been lowered if not torn down. At any rate, if all teachers of the nation could be brought together in some vast conclave there would be included Catholics, Protestants, and Jews, "old" Americans, second-generation folk, and immigrants, Indians, Negroes, Whites, and Orientals. Teacher education is concerned with all.⁵

Unfortunately, too high a percentage of teachers come from the middle economic classes to make them a truly representative group. It is a commonplace observation that the sons and daughters of neither the rich nor the poor are likely to be found in American classrooms as teachers. The children of the well-to-do usually enter the occupations associated with the family fortune, and the children from the lowest economic classes are commonly eliminated from school while in the grades or at the high school level because, for obvious reasons, they need to supplement the family income by their labors. Moreover, teacher education costs money, even though it is not as costly as the preparatory stages for the older professions—law, medicine, and theology.

In the opinion of many observers the fact that our teachers come predominantly from the families of relatively modest circumstances is not a serious matter. Coming as they do from the common stock, the teachers are capable of dealing with the problems of the common people. They are sympathetic to the necessity for social progress in all lines and are not especially fearful of changes—economic, social or political; they are open-minded and responsive to the controversial issues of the day.

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 8-9.

For many, teaching is a step upward in the social scale. Consequently, these teachers retain their faith in the American way of life. As a result, their students learn the advantages of American democracy, when contrasted with the caste systems of many other, presumably enlightened nations.

On the other hand, as long as teachers are predominantly from the middle class, the sons and daughters of farmers, "small" businessmen, artisans, and teachers, they have the cultural limitations of the homes of their origin. Although the radio, the movies, and the libraries are accessible to all members of society, "on the whole . . . those responsible for their education cannot assume that they have had ready access to great works of art or music or that they have been saturated in literature of the highest quality. They are likely to come of hardworking, substantial stock, and to share the strengths and weaknesses of the great bulk of our people. These facts provide a cue for teacher education, making it evident that it should be planned not merely with respect to professional skills and subject-matter specialization, but with regard as well for the best objectives of general education."⁶

The social complexion of the teachers varies somewhat from community to community and from one rung of the educational ladder to another. Proximity to a teacher-training institution will give one community a different class of teachers than another. Inasmuch as education costs less near at home, many students who might otherwise be denied higher education will be able to enroll and to become teachers in the community with a teachers college. More isolated communities may have to fall back on teachers with much less training and from an economic class that has not been able to send its children to school away from home for prolonged training.

It is a commonplace observation that high school teachers and elementary school teachers, in the large, are not from the same economic classes. Of course, this may not be true in a given community, especially where a single salary schedule obtains and where elementary school teachers and secondary

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

school teachers are expected to have comparable training and degrees. Young people whose parents could afford to send them to college have frequently elected to teach in the high school, where salaries are better, in preference to the elementary grades. On the other hand, the children of less-favored classes have often had to be content with the meager training which permits them to teach in elementary schools in certain communities and states. Scholarships at institutions of higher learning and opportunities for part-time work in college towns have made it possible for a few underprivileged youngsters to prepare as high school teachers, but many have been forced to teach in the rural elementary school where less training has been exacted.

Fortunately, the advent of the teachers college is changing the picture. Today, elementary and secondary school teachers are frequently trained side-by-side in the same school; the level at which the teacher trains is simply a matter of choice and when they start work with comparable teachers' certificates, they receive the same salaries.

According to Elsbree,

The environmental limitations surrounding prospective teachers are the most serious handicaps confronting the profession. . . . To fill in these cultural gaps in the experiences of teachers is a task of considerable magnitude. If it is to be done, the teacher training institutions will have to assume the major responsibility. . . . The task before the profession is the selection of individuals, regardless of the particular layer of social and economic strata from which they spring, who possess the intellectual and personal potentialities essential to teaching success, then to surround them with an environment which reeks with cultural opportunities and experiences. Through such a process of osmosis, American teachers may achieve a professional and cultural level beyond the dreams of present-day educators.⁷

Fortunately, teachers as a class are loyal American citizens. At least 85 per cent are native born and of native parentage. In the cities, as is to be expected, there is a fair percentage of foreign parentage. The teachers of rural America are almost 100 per cent "American" stock. Consequently, teachers as a

⁷ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York: American Book Co., 1939, p. 555.

class have never been a radical group; the few on "the lunatic fringe" are usually found in the larger cities, where their attitudes reflect the inequalities under which their parents and relatives have lived. America has little to fear from its school teachers.

As time goes on, the teacher-training institutions are taking steps to see that only the potentially successful students are admitted to professional training. Although selective procedures have prevailed for many generations in the schools training for the older professions, there have been some misunderstandings and misgivings about the right of teacher-training institutions to select the prospective teachers of the nation. However, second thought will convince any thinking person that it is just as important, if not more so, to have teachers of intelligence and emotional stability as it is to have physicians and surgeons, lawyers, and ministers, with these attributes. It is a regrettable fact that selectivity has not operated in the teaching profession as it has in these older professions. In the future we expect more and more teacher-training institutions to control the situation.

Prospective teachers should not be admitted to practice teaching until they have been carefully screened. The prospective teacher should be well above average in intellectual endowment as measured by intelligence tests, emotionally stable, above the average college student in scholarship, in good physical condition, and possessed of a pleasing personality. When and where the supply exceeds the demand, training institutions can render great service to society by raising entrance standards and eliminating the less fit.

As a matter of fact, teachers as a class constitute a superior group. It takes superior intelligence to finish high school and to pursue college courses successfully. The academic requirements place them well above the national average in formal schooling. Whereas, the median years of school completed by persons twenty years of age and over in 1940, according to the Federal census, was 8.8 years; the average teacher has had approximately two years of college training or 14.0 years of formal schooling, and the trend is ever upward. Although many

teacher-training institutions now provide agencies to detect and to guide the emotionally unstable away from teaching, more needs to be done in this area. Likewise, inasmuch as teaching involves much physical vigor, more attention needs to be given to physical examinations and remedial work. However, there is every reason to believe that teachers as a class are emotionally and physically superior to persons of their own age group in the general population, or they could not meet the exigencies of the classroom. Anyone who has ever attended a convention of a state teachers' association has come away with the impression that the teachers are a fine-looking, mentally alert, well-adjusted body of men and women.

The average age of the members of the teaching profession is advancing from generation to generation. Although the above statistics regarding the number of teachers in training indicate that a substantial number of the teachers are young men and women, the influx of young teachers is no longer proportionately as great as it used to be. With the improvement in teachers' salaries, the establishment of teacher retirement and tenure systems, the lengthened time necessary to complete professional courses, and certain other factors, men and women are less inclined to leave the teaching profession once they are in it. By 1940 over one-fifth of the teachers were over forty-five years of age, as contrasted to 8 per cent in 1890, and 17 per cent in 1930.⁸ However, there is reason to believe that the median age of teachers remains under thirty-five years. Obviously, the situation will vary within the different states and cities.

As teachers remain longer in the profession, prospects for beginning teachers are brighter. So long as the majority of teachers were youngsters, teachers received poor salaries. Now that teaching has been demonstrated to be a profession worthy of the services of the more mature and experienced, the public is changing its attitude on the problem of teachers' salaries and school costs. With a longer period of service ahead, the beginning teacher can afford to invest more in his education. As he becomes more proficient, his services are appreciated more and

⁸ *Teachers for Our Times*, *op. cit.*, p. 8.

more. It is sound social policy to lengthen the period of training for the prospective teacher, in view of the longer term of service assured.

Institutions that Prepare Teachers

American teachers are trained in several types of institutions—high schools, normal schools, teachers colleges, and institutions of higher learning. In a few less fortunate states teacher-training is still a function of the high school. However, even in these states there are teachers colleges and professional departments in the colleges and universities for the more fortunate students.

There has been considerable controversy among students of education over the origin of the American normal school. Certain historians of education think it was transplanted bodily from the Old World to American soil. Other authorities regard the first American normal schools as being indigenous to America. It is true that Germany had operated teachers seminaries for about a hundred years before they were first established in America, and it is also true that several Americans visited them shortly before the first public normal school was established in America at Lexington, Massachusetts, in 1839. On the other hand, the American normal school had about the same origin here that the seminaries had in Europe; it was an extension of the academy (which had included normal courses). And, from the outset, the American normal schools were unique in some features. Be that as it may, the normal schools were the most influential American teacher-training institutions for almost a century.

The early American normal schools conducted short-term teacher-training programs, usually one year in length. Before they gave way to teachers colleges, the normal schools usually offered a two-year course of study, although some few had developed strong four-year programs. The core of the curriculum was usually a review of the "common branches"—reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, and grammar. In addition to more general education, the school also taught the science and art of teaching and the art of classroom management, and

gave practice in teaching, usually in a "model" school. The normal schools still functioning under that name are either two- or four-year institutions. They are greatly influenced by the more popular teachers colleges and the departments of education in the institutions of higher learning. Some of the finest teacher-training in America is done by normal schools. However, the nondegree-granting normal schools are fast disappearing.

For various reasons the normal school movement gave way to the teachers college movement around 1915. Sometimes it was a matter of community pride; the local community wanted a college with the right to confer degrees. Usually, the establishment of the teachers college entailed adding two years of college work—generally regarded as being a good thing by all concerned. Not only did the teachers college strengthen professional training *per se*, it also gave considerable attention to the general education of its students. In the twenty-five years between 1915 and 1940, the teachers colleges of America doubled their enrollments.

Whereas only 20 per cent of the students they graduated in 1915 had more than two years of college work, in 1940, 80 per cent had completed a full four-year course. Value of plant and size of library quadrupled during the period. The number of staff members doubled, and the percentage holding the doctor's or master's degree rose from 22 to 91. In a quarter of a century the proportion of the faculty with Ph.D.'s [doctors of philosophy] increased five times—from 5 to 25 per cent.⁹

Today the teachers college has cornered the market on the training of elementary school teachers, although some are still trained in all the other types of institutions. Moreover, the teachers college in some localities trains high school teachers. Usually, it confers the bachelor's degree and awards the highest state certificate for elementary school teachers to those who wish to return for postgraduate work.

In some states the teachers college is being superseded by the state college. In recognition of the fact that not all students

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

in any locality are potential teachers, these institutions are broadening their curricula to include courses for typical college students. In these institutions the staff handling the professional courses is greatly influenced by the practices in the department of education (school or college of education) in the state university. In 1943, the American Association of Teachers Colleges listed 183 fully accredited teachers colleges, although some few were not known officially as teachers colleges, or were so regarded in their home communities.

One of the astonishing things in American education is the fact that the institution least interested in training teachers trains so many of them; a large proportion of the nation's high school teachers and some of its elementary school teachers are educated in liberal arts colleges.

Ten years ago, when an exhaustive study was last made of the question, it was revealed that nearly half the public school teachers who held degrees were graduates of private colleges and universities. In a very large number of such institutions prospective teachers constitute the largest occupational group identifiable in graduating classes: in not a few cases the percentage reaches and often considerably surpasses the 50 mark.¹⁰

Many liberal arts colleges have been forced by their students to organize and operate professional courses for teachers. Although there has been some antipathy between professional schools for teachers and liberal arts colleges who openly train teachers, it must be admitted that many liberal arts colleges have conducted excellent teacher-training courses. Unfortunately, many graduates of the liberal arts college have entered teaching without professional training. Naturally, lacking professional training, many have failed as teachers and many have missed the challenges in teaching. Furthermore, many have criticized the professional courses they know nothing about from first-hand experience. Also, the unprepared liberal arts graduates have competed with prepared teachers for the few positions available in periods of over-supply of teachers.

In recent years more and more liberal arts colleges are

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 14.

adding professional courses for teachers in regularly constituted departments of education. In such instances the preparatory courses are comparable to those offered by teachers colleges or universities maintaining departments of education, especially in the preparation of high school teachers. Since 1900, the number of departments of education in colleges and universities has skyrocketed from 24 to 600.

The Commission on Teacher Education reports,

Even today, however, a basis for lack of understanding continues to exist. The brunt of responsibility for teacher education as professional preparation rests on the departments of education. It remains essential, therefore, that they should include men with backgrounds of experience and with contemporary concerns that differ from those of their colleagues in other departments. These latter are typically men who have devoted their lives exclusively to academic scholarship; they are often at best apathetic toward teacher education. The fact that liberal arts faculty members ordinarily are not in close touch with the schools and their problems causes a further difficulty. Such men tend to think of the high schools largely as college-preparatory institutions when, as a matter of fact, their alternative responsibilities have, with their phenomenal growth in recent decades, become increasingly important. This misapprehension often has a realistic effect upon college programs for the preparation of secondary school teachers.¹¹

However, the Commission on Teacher Education is optimistic over the future role of liberal arts colleges in teacher education:

There are, however, some gratifying evidences of change, so far as the situation with respect to teacher education in the colleges of liberal arts is concerned, and these may presage more general developments. College departments of education are being continually strengthened with favorable promise for their status. It is possible to point to a considerable number of instances of cooperation by liberal arts faculty members with representatives of universities, teachers colleges, state departments of education, and the schools in the interest of improvement in the education of teachers. . . . It is perhaps too soon to discern a trend, but optimism is at least not wholly without justification.¹²

¹¹ *Ibid.*, pp. 14-15.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 15.

The situation of the university schools of education is more or less unique. As the Commission on Teacher Education observed,

The universities, so far as the undergraduate education of teachers is concerned, occupy a position somewhere between the teachers colleges and colleges of liberal arts, but with peculiar advantages and problems of their own. Typically they possess schools or colleges of education in which students preparing to teach may or must be registered. Often, however, registration in some other university division, notably the college of liberal arts, is possible. Prospective teachers so registered are in a situation comparable to that of students in exclusively liberal arts institutions. Usually the faculty of a school of education consists largely of professors of professional subjects, which means that students obtain their general education and do their advanced work in subject-matter fields by taking courses offered in other divisions. In many cases, indeed, registration in the school of education is not possible before the junior year. Thus, while universities are apt to have large and scholarly faculties of education, circumstances often militate against members of other departments feeling much involved in the preparation of teachers. The education faculty may, indeed, be more cut off from contacts with subject-matter men than in the colleges of liberal arts.

Here again, however, there is at least some movement in the direction of wider cooperation in the planning and conducting of programs of teacher preparation. A number of factors contribute to this. Professors of education have shown increasing eagerness to gain the understanding and assistance of their colleagues in other fields. Correspondingly, more members of arts faculties have become actively interested in problems of teacher education and have undertaken to give time and study to them. A shift in emphasis, on the part of more liberally educated professors of education from details of teaching method to fundamental considerations of human growth and social understanding has often provided a basis for closer cooperation. The bringing into discussions of representatives of state departments and of the schools themselves has had valuable results.¹³

It is not our present purpose to rate the various teacher-training institutions in order of merit. Most students will attend the institution in their own locality, regardless of what type it may be. Some few may have some choice, in which

¹³ *Ibid.*, pp. 15-16.

event the above statements may prove helpful. However, in many instances the reader will have made his final selection of an institution before he reads this paragraph. Rather, it is the purpose of this section of the chapter to indicate how American teachers are educated, and some of the unsolved problems regarding the preparation of teachers in all types of teacher-training institutions. There are good schools of all types. And, after all, none of them can give a prospective teacher any more help than he will accept and absorb.

Certification of Teachers

As will be pointed out in a later chapter, education in the United States has been regarded primarily as a state function. Consequently, the forty-eight states and the territories certify their own teachers, each in its own way. Thus, to describe adequately teacher-certification policies and regulations in the United States, it would be necessary to treat each state separately. Generalizations are very difficult; there is no uniformity in the certification requirements or regulations. Moreover, due to sudden changes of state policy, any general treatment would be out of date before it was printed. Although this is not the way it should be, that is the way it is.

Considerable improvement in certification requirements in the respective states has taken place in the last quarter of a century. According to the Commission on Teacher Education,

In 1921 thirty states certificated persons to teach without any requirement whatever as to their own educational experience. Fourteen other states insisted only upon high school graduation as a condition of certification, and the remaining four demanded less than a year of training beyond high school. This situation has changed markedly. By 1940 the number of states specifying no minimum educational requirements for regular certification had fallen to eight, and only four remained willing to consider candidates who had not progressed beyond high school. On the other hand, eight, in that year, demanded at least one year of post-high school preparation; ten were satisfied with no less than two years of work at the college level; nine with three years; and nine more insisted upon college graduation.

It should be recognized that these statements have to do with minimum prerequisites for any type of certificate. Since many certificates—as, for example, for high school teaching—carry higher requirements, since many localities employ higher standards than the states in which they are located, and since many prospective teachers voluntarily exceed the specified minimum of preparation, the situation was and is actually better than these figures suggest. A decade ago 85 per cent of the country's high school teachers already were college graduates. Moreover, the trend remains distinctly upward. In 1942, for example, five states and a large number of city school systems were refusing to consider for appointment to high school teaching positions persons who have not studied a year beyond college graduation.¹⁴

Despite the heterogeneity which is characteristic of teacher certification in the United States, Elsbree detected the following six trends, appearing mostly within the past fifty years, which, he says, “promise eventually to bring order out of chaos”:

1. The centralization of the licensing function in the state department of education.
2. The substitution of approved training for teachers' examinations.
3. The differentiation of certificates according to the nature of the student's preparation, and the abandonment of blanket licenses.
4. The gradual abolition of life certificates.
5. The raising of training levels for all types of teaching certificates, with some inclination to make four years of training above high school graduation the minimum for teaching in the elementary school and five years the minimum for teaching in the secondary school.
6. The requirement of a certain number of specialized courses in education in the candidate's program of studies.¹⁵

Professor Woellner and others publish each year the certification requirements in the various states of the Union.¹⁶ These publications will prove of great value to the prospective teacher contemplating a career in any state or in any group of states. They are of particular value to students pursuing their studies in one state but who expect to enter the teaching profession in

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-12.

¹⁵ Willard S. Elsbree, *The American Teacher*, New York: American Book Co., 1939, pp. 337f.

¹⁶ Robert C. Woellner and M. Aurilla Wood, *Requirements for Certification of Teachers and Administrators for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, and Junior Colleges*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, Tenth Edition, 1945-46.

another state, such as students attending college away from their home states, or students definitely contemplating careers in more favored states.

Choice of Fields of Specialization

Inasmuch as teachers' certificates are now commonly issued for either the elementary school or the secondary school, it will be necessary for the prospective teacher to make a choice of the level of service quite early in the professional school. Oftentimes, the beginning courses in education involve visitations to schools of all sorts, special schools for the deaf, blind, crippled, and incorrigible, as well as the elementary and secondary schools. Very often the elementary and the secondary school candidates take several professional courses together, such as introductory psychology, educational psychology, organization and administration of schools, etc. Nevertheless, the courses most immediately associated with the lines of duty and responsibility in the two levels of service are differentiated. Obviously, elementary school teachers need professional courses in the fundamental skills—reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, social studies, and language arts. Likewise, secondary school teachers need special preparation and background for the two or three subjects they expect to teach in high school, usually referred to as teaching majors and minors, as well as special methods courses in these subjects, such as home economics, physical education, classical languages, the modern languages, the social studies, the physical sciences, the biological sciences, art, music, industrial arts, etc.

The importance of a wise choice of the level of service cannot be overemphasized. After the choice is once made and the special courses are started, it is difficult to transfer from one field of service to another. Also, a prospective teacher may reasonably expect to serve several years, and possibly for the remaining years of life, in the school level selected at the outset. Shortsightedness should be completely eliminated; there is too much tendency to select the course that is nearest at hand, the shortest, the cheapest, or the one that gives best promise of

immediate placement. Such considerations should not unduly influence one's decision. The choice should be made with all factors in mind and under careful guidance from the teachers of the professional courses and the administrators of the teacher-training institution.

A number of factors should be kept in mind by the individual confronted with the problem of selecting the proper level of service. Of these, a few may very properly be suggested. After a few visits to classrooms at the various educational levels, the prospective teacher should know which children have the greatest appeal for him. It may be the kindergarten tots, the ugly ducklings in the intermediate grades, or the youngsters of teen age. After brief periods of initiatory service in the level of greatest appeal, the prospective teacher should learn whether or not he appeals to the students of the age group concerned. Some personalities which appeal to small children are almost repellent to high school students, and vice versa. Obviously, the prospective teacher will wish to inspect the activities going forward at each level and to ascertain their appeal to him. If scholarly, he may be so interested in higher mathematics, physical or biological sciences, foreign languages, music, art, or some other specialization, that this interest will outweigh all other factors. If so, he may wish to teach in high school or college. Enough has been said to indicate that a wise choice would involve guidance and experience. Snap judgment is too hazardous; the prospective teacher should recognize every element involved—the students, the subject-matter, the specializations, and the desirable teacher-personality traits.

A wise choice will be easier for some individuals than for others. The musician, artist, linguist, or scientist, as suggested above, will have an easy choice. Other students may hesitate for some time between the kindergarten or the primary grades, or between the lower grades and the intermediate grades, or between the junior high school and the senior high school. The best advice the writer can give is to visit often the levels under consideration and seek interviews with teachers, supervisors, and administrators, as well as with the teacher-training pro-

fessors and counsellors. When in serious doubt, it is possible in some situations to take dual certificates, preparing one to teach at two levels.

It is doubtful whether one should enter the teaching service at one level with the idea of later shifting to another. Especially is this the case in communities and states exacting approximately equal preparation for the two levels of service. In times past, teachers frequently started service in the grades with normal school preparation of a year or two and later acquired degrees qualifying them to teach in high school. The trouble in such a procedure is that the same professional courses will not prepare one to teach at both levels. Consequently, some new professional courses must be pursued and, inasmuch as the courses are organized for beginning teachers at that level, the experienced teacher experiences some dismay at the overlapping and duplicating of content. Moreover, time that should be given to general education and specialization may be partially wasted on additional professional requirements. If possible, the beginning teacher should enter the service at the level of interest.

Of course, prospective teachers will need to pay some heed to the demand for their services. There is no point in preparing for the kindergarten if there are no kindergartens in the communities or states under consideration. In the eastern part of the United States there are more opportunities for teachers of Latin than there are in the less tradition-bound West. A person preparing to teach sociology, psychology, or speech only will be fortunate if he is placed in a school large enough to employ full-time teachers in these special subjects. However, a person prepared to teach the social studies—involving history, civics, sociology, economics—will experience little difficulty, and the language arts major—English, speech, and a foreign language—will readily find placement. Placement bureaus in the teacher-training institutions frequently conduct studies of supply and demand in various lines which are very revealing and helpful to students in training. Prospective teachers, however, should be warned that their interest and capabilities outweigh questions of oversupply or shortages in various lines. Supply and

demand have a way of equalizing one another, leaving the student of marked interest free to pursue his chosen course. Students not wedded to special subjects are freer to shop around.

Changes in Teacher Education

Great strides have been made in the last decade or so in the field of teacher education. The old normal school centered its mission in the mastery of the common branches; the new teachers college emphasizes the all-round development of the prospective teacher as a potential servant of society. The objectives of the teachers college are envisioned by one set of authorities as follows:

HEALTH. The modern teachers college should contribute toward: (a) the health of its staff and students; (b) the ability of its graduates to guide pupils toward more healthful living; and (c) social changes which will make the world a more healthful place for everyone.

MENTAL HEALTH. The teachers college should contribute toward: (a) better mental health, saner outlook, and more attractive personality of staff and students; (b) ability of its graduates to guide pupils to more wholesome emotional adjustment; and (c) social changes which will be conducive to greater security and less frustration, strain, and distortion of personality.

WORK. The teachers college should contribute toward: (a) a better understanding and mastery of techniques in the teaching profession; (b) the ability of graduates to guide their pupils toward work which is personally satisfying and socially useful; and (c) a modification of our economic order that will put to work more of our human and material resources.

KNOWLEDGE. The teachers college should further the pursuit of knowledge, not only for its instrumental value in connection with other objectives, but also for its intrinsic contribution toward understanding.

Students should develop both breadth and depth of intellectual interest, persistence in wrestling with problems, and constant awareness of interrelationships of ideas. The teachers college should promote the search for truth by its staff and students, and should enable them, as teachers, to raise the level of intellectual interest among their pupils. It should foster those changes in society which will extend research and which will also utilize scientific knowledge more fully for the welfare of all our people.

ARTISTIC VALUES. The teachers college should contribute toward: (a) greater appreciation of the arts, more creative skill in the arts, and more artistic living on the part of its staff, its students, and the pupils in the schools; (b) changes in our culture and our social institutions which will facilitate the creation and enjoyment of beauty.

RECREATION. The teachers college should contribute (a) toward the enjoyment of life by its students, (b) toward their ability and inclination to make life happier for their future pupils, and (c) toward a society in which leisure brings greater satisfaction to all.

INTEGRITY. The teachers college should develop in its students and staff a high degree of integrity. They should speak, write, teach, and act as free and responsible persons. Our procedures should strike off shackles, emancipate, set people on their own feet, encourage declarations of independence, reward initiative, and, at the same time, develop in individuals readiness to accept the full consequences of their actions. We should strive to modify society in such ways as to reduce intimidation, hypocrisy, helplessness, dependence, and blind conformity.

COOPERATION. The teachers college should exemplify genuine cooperation of many different workers toward common ends; it should prepare its students to develop the potentialities of their future associates and pupils for cooperation in school and in the community.

GROWTH. The teachers college should contribute toward continuous growth and flexibility of adjustment to changing personal and social needs on the part of its staff and student body; its graduates should deserve to lead, and should be able to help society overcome some of the lags and rigidities which now retard social progress. Harold J. Laski speaks in this connection of "the critical temper, by which I mean that intensity of conviction is always accompanied by openness of mind."*

There are many other, more specific, objectives which teachers college faculties should hold for themselves and their students, because they contribute as means to some of the above ends. Among them, the following may be emphasized:

- a. A social frame of reference, growing out of extensive, careful, and active study of our society and the forces which move within it.
- b. Thorough understanding of the growth and development of individuals.
- c. Mastery of a field of subject matter (not necessarily defined according to the conventional divisions).

* "The Elite in a Democratic Society," *Harpers*, Vol. 167, pp. 456-464 (1933).

- d. Skill in relationships with other people; techniques adequate for good adjustment to social situations.
- e. A high degree of skill in reading, writing, and speaking.
- f. Skill in discovering and using the resources of a community: organizations, institutions, traditions, personalities, etc.
- g. Skill in using libraries, references, bibliographies, indices and other sources of additional information.
- h. Capacity to interpret and to criticize research; ability to contribute some research.¹⁷

A leading state-university college of education has evolved the following list of factors of competency for teachers which it is endeavoring to develop in its students through appropriate educational experiences:

I. Factors Prerequisite for Beginning a Program of Preparation for Teaching—

- A. Freedom from physical handicap or disease
- B. Liking for children and young people
- C. Healthy social adjustment

A person who is very inept in social contacts, or avoids them, will not find in teaching either success or satisfaction.

D. Ideal of service

Unless a person finds satisfaction in usefulness and devotion to human welfare, he should not enter teaching.

E. Intelligence

An individual markedly below the average in general ability will face only distress and probable failure if he attempts to teach.

II. Factors to Be Developed in the Plan of Preparation for Teaching—

A. Professional understandings

1. Child development and learning

It is necessary that the teacher have a broad, scientific knowledge of the processes of development and learning in childhood and adolescence.

2. Individual differences

A teacher should know something of methods of case study, of both unusual and exceptional types of cases, and of methods of dealing with them.

¹⁷ Goodwin Watson, Donald P. Cottrell, Esther M. Lloyd-Jones, *Redirecting Teacher Education*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938, pp. 5-8.

3. Materials and methods of instruction

A teacher should be familiar with the rich material on curriculums, methods, and materials of instruction yielded by modern research and theory.

4. Extra-curricular activities

The teacher should understand that the modern school is concerned with the total development of the pupil, and aims to provide social and recreational as well as academic activities.

5. Methods of evaluation

The teacher must be familiar with modern methods of educational evaluation and competent in their use.

6. Guidance

In the modern complex school, preparing for the modern complex world, the teacher should be competent to offer guidance services.

7. Educational organization and operation

A competent teacher will have a broad practical understanding of the organization and functioning of schools and school systems so that he may be an effective co-operating member of a school staff.

8. Educational sociology

A teacher must have a rich knowledge of communities and of the socioeconomic problems which affect school, pupils, and teacher.

9. Problems of community culture

The teacher should be a participating leader in community culture.

10. Educational philosophy

It is essential that the teacher have a broad understanding of the conflicting ideologies of the present, a vision of a total program of education and the vital services it should render to the modern world.

B. Subject-matter understandings—

There should, obviously, be such understanding of the proposed fields of instruction as will make the teacher competent to guide the experience of pupils in these fields. This calls for the beginning of a true scholarship in these subjects, and assumes such enthusiasm, and such abilities, that the teacher will continue to grow in scholarship. It calls also for understanding of the

contribution these fields are to make to the development of children and the ways these fields are to be so used.

C. Functioning abilities—

It is not sufficient merely to verbalize about any of these mentioned topics. An adequate program of teacher preparation will give not only verbal understanding of these problems, but practice in dealing with them. In general, the abilities required for the performance of the many acts of social and educational engineering involved in service as a teacher are of seven types.

1. Ability in extra-curricular activities

As part of his professional training (as well as for his personal development) the student will participate in various social and extra-curricular activities.

2. Ability in work with children and young people

Each student is expected to obtain some actual experience in the supervision of young people in social and recreational activities.

3. Ability in preparation of class materials

As part of his work in certain courses, he will be expected to aid in some of the projects of one of the service laboratories.

4. Ability in case study

Relatively early in his program he will make an intensive study of one or more children or adolescents.

5. Ability in administration and classroom routine

6. Ability in classroom instruction

7. Ability in school and community relationships¹⁸

The acceptance of such lists of objectives alters considerably the role of the teachers college. The traditional lecture courses in professional subjects have given way to organized professional experiences. The modern teachers college helps its students develop their voices and overcome their speech defects, diagnose and solve their emotional problems, perfect their study techniques, safeguard and improve their health, and so forth, as well as helping them to master the subjects they expect to teach

¹⁸ A. J. Klein, et al., *Adventures in the Reconstruction of Education*, Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University College of Education, 1941, pp. 26-28. For a similar description of a revamped teacher education program in a private institution see *A Functional Program of Teacher Education*, as developed at Syracuse University. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education. 1941, 259 pages.

and the techniques by which they expect to teach them. Conferences, interviews, field trips, and laboratory experiences supplement and alter the usual classroom experiences. Nevertheless, "while talking of the necessity of learning by doing, colleges of education have perhaps been most backward of all the professional schools in developing laboratory, clinical, and apprentice types of professional experiences."¹⁹

The revamped teacher-education programs are among the most interesting curricula open to college students. Not only does the student have firsthand experience with schools and school children, in some instances he also visits the juvenile court, the family relations court, the detention home, the industrial school, the day nursery, the children's hospital, the Community Chest headquarters. Moreover, students in rural teachers colleges visit the nearest metropolis in a chartered bus and students in the city teachers colleges seek summer experiences in the country. Teacher education can be said to be in a stage of "quiet revolution." It is not enough to prepare a person to conduct "the educational rituals of the conventional classroom."

There is a great challenge in a teacher-education program that invites the student to take :

1. An interest inventory which reveals his liking and dislike for certain curricular interests such as science, social studies; certain verbal interests such as reading, writing, and talking; certain aesthetic interests such as fine arts and music; and certain social interests.
2. An attitude scale which measures the degree of his liberalism, conservatism, uncertainty, and consistency about social issues.
3. A contemporary-affairs test which indicates the extent of his knowledge of political and social affairs as well as "cultural" affairs.
4. A social-problems test designed to reveal the dominant values which characterize his thinking.
5. A general-culture test which samples the student's knowledge of fine arts, social studies, foreign literature, science, and mathematics.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 93.

6. A recreation inquiry form on which the student indicates his knowledge about, and interest, past membership, participation, and present activity in sports, hobbies, games, and social organizations.²⁰

In the opinion of many authorities the prospective teachers in the better schools are getting the best possible all-round education. In fact, it is impossible to distinguish between "subject-matter," "cultural," and "professional" courses, "since all activities acquire character from relationship to student purposes."²¹

Growth in Service

The latest movements in the education of teachers in service are as revolutionary as some of the newer developments in the preparation of prospective teachers. In times past, of necessity, in-service training for teachers consisted largely of bringing up to standard the vast multitude of sub-standard teachers. Consequently, there was but slight difference between the education of prospective teachers and teachers in service; the teachers in service took the same courses the undergraduates pursued in regular courses, but pursued them in extension programs or in summer sessions. Were it not for the fact that standards for teachers were ever increasing, many teachers might have considered their educations complete when they had met the minimum requirements. In fact, many teachers were resentful, and quite rightly so, of the many new prescriptions exacted of them—more often than not courses designed for undergraduate students. Teachers were often inclined to feel that their education was complete, once they had attained the prescribed level of accomplishment and had their attainments recognized by a higher type of certificate, a college degree, or an automatic increase in salary. Rarely was the education given the teachers in service of the type that altered their personalities or appreciably influenced the nature or type of the services they rendered.

Since the early nineteen-twenties there has been a noticeable increase in the period of service of the typical teacher. Up until

²⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 218-219.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 64.

then teachers taught for a brief period only, usually a prelude to matrimony or vocational pursuits. Naturally, the professional training of this era was largely pre-service education. With the lengthening of teacher tenure, which first became noticeable in the twenties and was accentuated in the thirties, attention has shifted to the possibilities of a more positive and helpful education for teachers in service. It is now generally recognized that education for teachers in service must be something more than courses designed to bring teachers up to standard or to remedy defects in preparation. As teachers serve longer and meet prevailing standards, they realize the necessity for still further professional growth.

Teachers in service should demonstrate continuous growth in the capacity to teach. This means broadened understanding of human development and human living. "And now more than at any previous period in school history it means growth in one's capacity to work with others, with classroom teachers and principals in a variety of activities, with the administration, with parents and community leaders, and with children of different age groups."²² "The newer emphasis is on the desirability of every teacher continuing to give a certain amount of time to experiences calculated to lead to personal and professional growth."²³

The outstanding innovation of the last two decades of teacher education is the so-called "workshop." The workshop movement is commonly dated from the summer of 1936, when a group of secondary school teachers involved in the Progressive Education Association's eight-year study of school-college relations met at Ohio State University.²⁴ The next few years many workshops were sponsored by the Progressive Education Association and the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education.

Workshops are commonly designed for teachers who have previously completed the usual sequence of professional courses

²² Charles E. Pratt and C. Leslie Cushman, *Teacher Education in Service*, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944.

²³ *Teachers for Our Times*, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

²⁴ Kenneth L. Heaton, William C. Camp, and Paul B. Diederich, *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940, pp. 2f.

required for certification. The essential characteristics of the workshop are as follows:

1. The participant is given an opportunity to make an intensive study of an interest which has arisen out of his experience as a teacher.
2. The participant shares in planning a program of individual and group activities designed to meet his needs and those of his fellow-workers.
3. The participant is provided with easy access to the services of various staff members representing a variety of kinds of assistance.
4. Formal and informal association with other participants of varied backgrounds contributes to the participant's thinking on his specific problem, broadens his general professional orientation, and provides opportunity for experiences in co-operative activities.
5. An effort is made to interest the participant in the whole child, the whole school, and the whole community.
6. The participant's total experiences as he studies a specific interest or problem tends to prepare him for the solution of other professional problems in the future.
7. Since workshops have been concerned not only with the professional problems of the teacher but with his life as an individual, efforts have been made to afford opportunities for balanced living.²⁵

Workshop experience commonly includes: (1) *individual advisory conferences*, where the teacher confers with a staff member on a special problem; (2) *major work groups*, where the teacher works with a small group of teachers and staff members interested in the same general problems; (3) *request groups*, where teachers constitute themselves into informal groups to pursue special interests or problems; (4) *general meetings*, where staff members lecture, participants engage in panel discussions or informal discussions; (5) *individual activities*, such as independent reading, creative writing, recreation and relaxation; and (6) *informal activities*, such as dramatics, excursions, recreational events, etc.

²⁵ Each of the above characteristics is elaborated in *Professional Education for Experienced Teachers*, cited above.

Workshops have been centered in numerous topics of concern to the experienced teacher: methods of studying child growth and development; using community resources in the school program; making informal behavior records; improving relations among teachers, supervisors, and administrators; bettering teacher welfare; articulating the different levels of a school system; improving home-school relations; utilizing teaching aids; evaluating the school program, etc.

Better Supervision and Administration

In recent times many criticisms have been directed at traditional methods of school supervision and administration. Elsewhere, the present writer has summarized these criticisms as follows:

1. *The administrative and supervisory organization is autocratic, not democratic*, taking its model from big business or the army, or both. The American school system is administered upon a pattern diametrically opposite to democracy.

2. *In the autocratic school organization there is a complete separation of planning and performance.* The plans are the work of so-called experts far removed from the classroom situation where they are to be executed by defenseless teachers in a do-or-die attitude. There is the further inference that plans worthy of the name are part and parcel of the immediate situation. Furthermore, the only persons in a position to evaluate the outcomes of the plans are the teachers and pupils, who are excluded from this role in the traditional school organization. Thus, our implicit philosophy of educational administration is one of dictatorship.

3. *There is a clamor for loyalty up the line, but no loyalty down the line.* Teachers are supposed to defend their principals, supervisors, and superintendents, but the officials owe nothing to the teachers. The officials have been known to take the credit for the few successful innovations that were bootlegged into the system in defiance of the authorities. The "line" is practically a one-way street.

4. *The supervision is dictatorial.* Supervisors elaborate pet theories which the teachers are duty-bound to execute, whether they fit the situation or not. Teachers rise and fall on the scores the pupils make on tests made or administered by the supervisors. Teachers live from day

to day, enslaved with foreign ideas and with their professional lives at stake. "Getting by the supervisor" is the substitute for early professional ideals and there is a premium on docility and tractability, instead of on growth and leadership.

5. *The teacher occupies a subordinate position in American education.* Copying from the medical profession (and there is a good deal of medical terminology in American education: diagnosis, remedial treatment, etc.), the supervisor or principal plays the professional role of the doctor and the teacher is left with the menial tasks of the nurse, dependent upon his superiors for prescriptions every step of the way. The superior is the knower; the subordinate is the doer, with no share in policy making. The supervisor may pose as a helper on a plane of equality, but the teachers recognize the subtle maneuvers by which he gets his way.

6. *The teacher's personality is violated.* Teachers are given devices and techniques and told to use them to produce the results in pupils desired by the officials. Teachers are used as means-to-ends, and not as ends in-and-of-themselves. Thus, there is direct violation of the principle of humanity. Thousands of sparkling personalities are dimmed, disintegrated, or frustrated.

7. *The pupil's personality is violated.* In the interests of group standards, the individual is forgotten. His duty is to do or die. By oppression and suppression he is to learn to use wisely the relative freedom of adult life. Only by living in an environment that respects personality can we develop respect for the personality of others.

8. *Autocratic supervision violates the spirit of science.* It does not ask *what* is right, but *who* is right, and the highest official is always right. A teacher discovers through experimentation that a certain procedure is wrong, but because of his superior's convictions is compelled to continue its use.

9. *Autocratic supervision breeds the cult of blind obedience,* with the result that the blind teachers lead the blind pupils. Schools are conducted for the prevention of thought.

10. *Classroom procedures are correspondingly dictatorial.* The typical teacher's diary might well be entitled, "An Autocrat in the Classroom." Pupils do not learn to evaluate conflicting claims, weigh evidence, search for the truth, detect propaganda, or arrive at independent judgments. They follow the dictates of the higher-ups via the teacher's voice. How can the teacher show the class the spirit of democracy when the teacher himself is an instrument of autocracy?

11. *Efficiency is the god of the administrator.* Teachers' proposals are ignored because they might upset the efficiency of the system. The beautiful buildings and the public receive more attention than the teachers or the pupils. As a result, "the average American schools are in practice at least twenty years behind our most forward-looking theory." Individual differences and child growth and development are pushed aside in the interests of efficiency.

12. *Our schools have ignored the social challenge.* Teachers and pupils are not permitted to reflect upon the present social order. Illustrations must be drawn from far afield; the local community must not be touched. Superintendents have not sensed the role that they play in the formulation of social policies.

13. *Supervision has been centered in subject-matter mastery,* ignoring largely pupil growth in capacity for independent thinking, in variety of interests, in attitudes, appreciations, and habits. The tendency to organize supervision by subjects has had many bad effects, chief of which is the undue emphasis on teaching subject matter to the exclusion of more important values in child growth and development.²⁶

As a result of these criticisms teachers are finding more wholesome working conditions; a new conception of school supervision and administration is evolving. Democratic innovations are noticeable on every hand. The new practices are centered in a few premises: "(1) that no one serve merely as an instrument in the hands of another; (2) that each be afforded an opportunity to realize his own personality through the organizing activity of his own capacity; and (3) that each perform his own specialized tasks with a full consciousness of their implications in the functions of others."²⁷

A *Yearbook* of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association asserts:

If we believe that creating is the essence of education and intelligent self-direction the supreme act of life, a program of creative supervision should be so planned and administered as to achieve as far as possible the intelligent self-direction of the teacher through (1) an environment in which she is free to respond creatively; (2) opportunity to do her

²⁶ John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*, New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, pp. 216-218.

²⁷ H. B. Alberty and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision in the Secondary School*, Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1931, p. 103.

own thinking, to form her own judgments, to discover her own finest interests and abilities; (3) sufficient guidance to develop her own techniques and her own procedures based on a knowledge of how learning takes place; (4) continuous experiences which result in more and better self-direction in the re-creation of her experiences, and in the integration of her personality.²⁸

Summary

The education of a teacher is one of society's most important tasks. In the interests of social well-being the teachers of the nation must be a superior group of persons. As time marches on, teacher-training institutions must take steps to see that only the potentially successful students are admitted to professional training. Furthermore, the student in training must be carefully guided in his choice of the level of the educational systems in which he can best serve, and his field of specialization. It is important that the prospective teacher enter the best possible teacher-training institution and that he make the best possible use of its services, recognizing its strengths and weaknesses. Also, he should know the certification requirements well in advance of the time he expects to be certified. This chapter has been aimed to orient the prospective teacher with respect to many of the problems of teacher-education so important to him personally.

STUDY AIDS

1. What is the surest way to improve education?
2. What is "the number 1 job of American colleges and universities"? Explain.
3. What is the social composition of America's teaching body? Is this as it should be?
4. Are elementary school and high school teachers from the same economic classes? Should they be?

²⁸ "Supervision and the Creative Teacher," *Fifth Yearbook, Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, National Education Association*, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932, p. 290.

5. According to Elsbree, what are the most serious handicaps confronting the profession? Do you agree?
6. Debate the issue: Resolved, that teacher-training institutions should have the right to reject students.
7. How should prospective teachers be screened? What are valid criteria?
8. Are teachers as a class a superior group? What is the evidence, *pro* and *con*?
9. Which is better, a teaching profession predominately of young- or of middle-aged people? Justify your answer.
10. Describe the various types of teacher-training institutions: What is a "normal school"? a "teachers college"? a "state college"? a "liberal arts college"? Which do you personally favor? Why?
11. Should each state certify its own teachers? (In this connection you may wish to consult Chapters 8 and 9.)
12. What are the recent trends in teacher certification?
13. At which level and in which subject area do you intend to teach? Why?
14. Should one enter the teaching profession at one level with the idea of later shifting to another?
15. If you choose to teach in high school, what subjects do you intend to teach? Why?
16. What are the recognized objectives in teacher education?
17. Does a teacher get a well-rounded education?
18. What is a "workshop"? How is it organized and how does it function?
19. Should school administration be more democratic? How?
20. Write a brief paper entitled—"What I Think of the Teaching Profession."

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CHAPTER 6

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Collect whatever of talent, of erudition, or eloquence, or authority the broad land can supply, and go forth and teach this people.—HORACE MANN

Teaching as a vocation has been regarded as one of the four traditional professions (law, theology, medicine, and teaching). However, not all teachers have always been granted professional status; historically the professional term has been applied only to those in the higher brackets, the professors and the schoolmasters. Only in recent times has the issue arisen as to whether or not the profession of teaching is all-inclusive. The professional advances of the last few years have gone a long way in resolving the issue in the affirmative, but the debate still rages in some quarters.

As suggested in the previous chapter, the teaching body includes persons of the widest diversity of culture, professional interest, and training. It includes those who are qualified by nature and training to direct the learning activities of the rising generation, and, unfortunately, it also includes some who are neither prepared for nor interested in the task. It includes those who are proud to be called teachers, and those who are ashamed of the title; those who have dedicated their lives to the calling, and those who are using teaching as a steppingstone to something thought to be better. So long as teachers are such a heterogeneous group of persons, teaching is not the profession it should be.

Great professional strides have been made in recent years. No one familiar with the great body of professional literature of the last few decades, with the numerous professional schools for

teachers established since the turn of the century, or with the important task that confronts the teaching body, will doubt the need, or the possibilities, of a teaching profession.

Teaching, at its best, is as worthy of the title as any profession. Like medicine, teaching is a science and an art. Although dependent in part on more or less empirical tradition, in this respect it is no different than medicine. And, it may be properly argued that it is more scientific than either law or theology.

Teachers Render Social Service

Various definitions have been proposed for a profession. The Supreme Court of the United States once defined a profession as follows: "A vocation involving relations to the affairs of others of such a nature as to require for its proper conduct an equipment of learning or skill, or both, and to warrant the community in making restrictions in respect to its exercise." The certification requirements of the various states would indicate that teaching has attained this status in every commonwealth.

Technical distinctions between professions and occupations have been attempted. Although these are the earmarks of a profession, it is generally conceded that a profession is not simply a collection of individuals who make a living for themselves by the same kind of work and who organize for the protection of the members. Any group of laborers might qualify, if that were all. The traditional professions enforce certain standards upon the members, not only for the protection of their members, but for the better protection of the public. Moreover, they assume certain responsibilities for the competence of their members and the quality of their wares, and they deliberately prohibit certain kinds of conduct on the ground that they are calculated to bring the profession into disrepute. Although these also are commonly regarded as the earmarks of a profession, it must be conceded that if organized, other bodies of workers might do the same. It is apparent that we have not yet hit upon the factors that distinguish the profession from the occupation. The remaining discussion, while not

disregarding the above attributes, will center on two factors not previously mentioned, namely, a high and specialized type of social service, and professional ethics.

Teachers do render a high and specialized form of social service. Not everyone can teach. Even those most gifted by nature must acquire a good general education and much professional knowledge and many professional techniques and skills before they assume the role of teacher. The teacher must be well grounded in biological and social sciences, especially psychology and sociology; "he must use language with precision, if not elegance, in both its spoken and written form"; and he must know something about the physical forces of the universe. Then, he must acquire professional knowledge, skills and judgments. The professional knowledge must be derived as far as possible from scientific studies, "not from traditional lore, rule of thumb, undocumented experience, authoritarian pronouncements, or pseudo-scientific hocus pocus." Every teacher must have a repertoire of skills, many of which are acquired only with considerable practice. Techniques and methods are as indispensable now as in days of yore, but the teacher must know *why*, *when*, and *how* to use them wisely. After all, it is professional judgment that differentiates a profession from a skilled trade or craft. As Trow says, "The situation is not so simple as in a trade skill where one learns that when *a* appears you must do *x*. Instead, for the professional man it is more apt to be, when *a* appears do *x* if *c* and *d* are present but *e* is not, unless *x* would result in *f*, in which case *y* or *z* might be tried, but watch out for *g* and *h*!"¹

Trow continues, "The professional man, whatever his field, is called upon to decide what the difficulty is (diagnosis), what may be expected (prognosis), what should be done about it (treatment). He must know the implications of a situation, and recommend action or employ professional techniques in accordance with the demands of the peculiar circumstances of the moment." Withal, "he will maintain a certain air of detachment, for he must not be angered by, or oversympathetic

¹ William Clark Trow, "Teaching as a Profession," *The University School of Education Bulletin*, 16:20-23 (November, 1944).

toward, those with whose problems he is entrusted.”² In all situations he must be guided by the professional code of ethics.

Professional Codes of Ethics

Aside from the high and specialized type of social service, a profession is noted for its high professional code of ethics. During the past fifty years numerous codes of ethics for teachers have been prepared by individuals, by classes in teacher-training institutions, and by local, state, and national associations. The first official state code for teachers was adopted in 1896 by the state teachers' association of Georgia. California followed suit in 1904, and Alabama in 1908. By 1921, the teachers' associations in eight states had official codes and by 1930, twenty-three states had adopted such documents. By 1945, this number had increased to thirty-four, and eight other states had adopted the code of the National Education Association. The National Education Association appointed a committee on ethics in 1924, and in 1929 officially approved a code.

The student will be interested in examining the latest edition of the NEA Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession, adopted by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association at the Boston Convention, July, 1941:

Preamble

BELIEVING: That true democracy can best be achieved by a process of free public education made available to all the children of all the people;

That the teachers in the United States have a large and inescapable responsibility in fashioning the ideals of children and youth;

That such responsibility requires the services of men and women of high ideals, broad education, and profound human understanding; and, in order that the aims of democratic education may be realized more fully, that the welfare of the teaching profession may be promoted; and,

That teachers may observe proper standards of conduct in their professional relations, the National Education Association of the United States proposes this code of ethics for its members.

² *Ibid.*, p. 23.

The term "teacher" as used in this code shall include all persons directly engaged in educational work, whether in a teaching, an administrative, or a supervisory capacity.

ARTICLE I—RELATIONS TO PUPILS AND THE HOME

Section 1—It is the duty of the teacher to be just, courteous, and professional in all his relations with pupils. He should consider their individual differences, needs, interests, temperaments, aptitudes, and environments.

Section 2—He should refrain from tutoring pupils of his classes for pay, and from referring such pupils to any member of his immediate family for tutoring.

Section 3—The professional relations of a teacher with his pupils demand the same scrupulous care that is required in the confidential relations of one teacher with another. A teacher, therefore, should not disclose any information obtained confidentially from his pupils, unless it is for the best interest of the child and the public.

Section 4—A teacher should seek to establish friendly and intelligent cooperation between home and school, ever keeping in mind the dignity of his profession and the welfare of the pupils. He should do or say nothing that would undermine the confidence and respect of his pupils for their parents. He should inform the pupils and parents regarding the importance, purposes, accomplishments, and needs of the schools.

ARTICLE II—RELATIONS TO CIVIC AFFAIRS

Section 1—It is the obligation of every teacher to inculcate in his pupils an appreciation of the principles of democracy. He should direct full and free discussion of appropriate controversial issues with the expectation that comparisons, contrasts, and interpretations will lead to an understanding, appreciation, acceptance, and practice of the principles of democracy. A teacher should refrain from using his classroom privileges and prestige to promote partisan politics, sectarian religious views, or selfish propaganda of any kind.

Section 2—A teacher should recognize and perform all the duties of citizenship. He should subordinate his personal desires to the best interests of the public good. He should be loyal to the school system, the state, and the nation, but should exercise his right to give constructive criticisms.

Section 3—A teacher's life should show that education makes people better citizens and better neighbors. His personal conduct should not

needlessly offend the accepted pattern of behavior of the community in which he serves.

ARTICLE III—RELATIONS TO THE PROFESSION

Section 1—Each member of the teaching profession should dignify his calling on all occasions and should uphold the importance of his services to society. On the other hand, he should not indulge in personal exploitation.

Section 2—A teacher should encourage able and sincere individuals to enter the teaching profession and discourage those who plan to use this profession merely as a steppingstone to some other vocation.

Section 3—It is the duty of the teacher to maintain his own efficiency by study, by travel, and by other means which keep him abreast of the trends in education and the world in which he lives.

Section 4—Every teacher should have membership in his local, state, and national professional organizations, and should participate actively and unselfishly in them. Professional growth and personality development are the natural product of such professional activity. Teachers should avoid the promotion of organization rivalry and divisive competition which weaken the cause of education.

Section 5—While not limiting their services by reason of small salary, teachers should insist upon a salary scale commensurate with the social demands laid upon them by society. They should not knowingly underbid a rival or agree to accept a salary lower than that provided by a recognized schedule. They should not apply for positions for the sole purpose of forcing an increase in salary in their present position; correspondingly, school officials should not refuse to give deserved salary increases to efficient employees until offers from other school authorities have forced them to do so.

Section 6—A teacher should not apply for a specific position currently held by another teacher. Unless the rules of the school system otherwise prescribe, he should file his application with the chief executive officer.

Section 7—Since qualification should be the sole determining factor in appointment and promotion, the use of pressure on school officials to secure a position or to obtain other favors is unethical.

Section 8—Testimonials regarding teachers should be truthful and confidential, and should be treated as confidential information by the school authorities receiving them.

Section 9—A contract, once signed, should be faithfully adhered to until it is dissolved by mutual consent. Ample notification should be

given both by school officials and teachers in case a change in position is to be made.

Section 10—Democratic procedures should be practiced by members of the teaching profession. Cooperation should be predicated upon the recognition of the worth and the dignity of individual personality. All teachers should observe the professional courtesy of transacting official business with the properly designated authority.

Section 11—School officials should encourage and nurture the professional growth of all teachers by promotion or by other appropriate methods of recognition. School officials who fail to recommend a worthy teacher for a better position outside their school system because they do not desire to lose his services are acting unethically.

Section 12—A teacher should avoid unfavorable criticism of other teachers except that formally presented to a school official for the welfare of the school. It is unethical to fail to report to the duly constituted authority any matters which are detrimental to the welfare of the school.

Section 13—Except when called upon for counsel or other assistance, a teacher should not interfere in any matter between another teacher and a pupil.

Section 14—A teacher should not act as an agent, or accept a commission, royalty, or other compensation, for endorsing books or other school materials in the selection or purchase of which he can exert influence, or concerning which he can exercise the right of decision; nor should he accept a commission or other compensation for helping another to secure a position.

ARTICLE IV—STANDING COMMITTEE ON PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

There is hereby established a Standing Committee on Professional Ethics consisting of five members appointed by the president.

It shall be the duty of the Committee to study and to take appropriate action on such cases of violation of this Code as may be referred to it. The Committee shall be responsible also for publicizing the Code, promoting its use in institutions for the preparation of teachers, and recommending needed modifications.

If, when a case is reported, it is found to come from a state which has an Ethics Committee, such case shall immediately be referred to said state committee for investigation and action. In the case of a violation reported from a state which has neither a code nor an ethics committee, or from a state which has a code but no ethics committee, the NEA Ethics Committee shall take such action as seems wise and reasonable

and will impress members with the importance of respect for proper professional conduct. Such action shall be reported to the chief school officers of the community and the state from which the violation is reported.

The Committee is further vested with authority to expel a member from the National Education Association for flagrant violation of this code.

The following is a representative state code, approved by the House of Delegates of the Utah Education Association on October 11, 1945:

1. Teaching is a profession that merits our utmost loyalty and devotion. We will undertake our work wholeheartedly and enthusiastically as a profession worthy of the best effort of the most capable—a commendable life's work and not a temporary steppingstone.

2. In teaching, as in all worthy professions, growth is essential to life. We will keep abreast of progress and in touch with the advancement of vital interests of the profession and of those whom we serve. We will employ every effective means of growing professionally, such as the reading of books and magazines, active affiliation with local, state, and national education associations and other related organizations, organized study programs, attendance and participation in faculty meetings, discussion groups, institutes, and conventions. We will recognize the importance of being scholastically and professionally prepared for the positions we seek or accept.

3. In any profession service is of paramount importance. As teachers we will always endeavor to render the highest quality of service of which we are capable in terms of the needs of our students and of society, irrespective of the amount of compensation. However, we will not be unmindful of the importance of adequate financial compensation for professional service through the operation of an equitable and adequate salary schedule.

4. We believe in democratic cooperation in a spirit of courteous helpfulness and sympathetic understanding. We will strive earnestly to teach democracy through living democracy in our personal and professional relations with pupils and patrons, and with fellow teachers, supervisors, and administrators.

5. Ethical teachers are truly patriotic in the deepest and best sense. We believe in humanity and in the ideals of our country as a worthy member of the world family of nations organized to promote peace and progress for all people. As good citizens, we will participate in the

activities of the community, and especially in those activities that have to do with the protection and betterment of the immature.

6. We believe in the improvability and educability of persons and peoples, and we affirm our faith in the great power of democratic education as an agency for both individual and social progress.

7. Recognizing that schools exist for the learners, we will be mindful of the influence of the teacher's personality on the developing personalities of children and youth. We believe that the teacher who is a pessimist, a grouch, or a cynic has no legitimate place in the school room.

8. Ethical teachers are dependable. We will respect the terms and the spirit of every appointment and contract into which we enter and expect others to do likewise. We will neither claim nor assume any special cancellation privilege which we would be unwilling to have exercised by the board of education under the terms of the contract.

9. We will be loyal to other members of the profession and strive to enhance their influence for good among pupils, fellow teachers, and members of the community. We will avoid unfavorable criticism of associates except when professionally made to proper officials, and then only on the basis of verifiable facts and conditions. We will, however, feel professionally obligated to report unethical and harmful practices to the proper officials as a helpful means of safeguarding the important services of the school.

10. We believe that teacher placement in the public schools is a public service in the public interest, chargeable to public funds, and we deem it professionally unethical for teachers to be charged or made to pay private commissions for being placed in positions.

11. We believe that admission to programs of specific preparation for teaching, which may lead to employment in the public schools, is a privilege to be granted by society on the basis of merit and aptitude and is not a right to be demanded and claimed by any citizen. We will, therefore, encourage the more capable and desirable young people (as judged by a combination of the best available criteria) to enter the field of preparation for teaching on the basis of sound programs of selective admission.

12. Although recognizing the desirability of having the position seek the person, when applying for a position we will make application to the properly designated official. We will not apply for a specific position that is not vacant, nor will we underbid others or underbid the salary schedule in an effort to obtain a position. After signing a contract we will not make further applications to other districts except for the period following the legal expiration of the contract. We will likewise

expect employing officials of other districts to clear with our superintendent of schools before offering us a contract which entails the cancelling of the one we have already signed.

13. We will not solicit or accept private fees for educational work which interferes with or is covered by the contracts for service which we have signed with the school or school district, and we will not unethically require of pupils private lesson work from ourselves as a prerequisite to admission to courses or classes in the school.

14. Testimonials regarding teachers should be truthful, unevasive, and confidential, and should be sent directly to the prospective employer or institution desiring information about the teacher. We will, therefore, neither issue nor seek "to whom it may concern" recommendations which are carried in hand.

15. As professional teachers we will avoid the endorsing of educational materials for mere personal gain or for any other reason except upon the basis of the honest merits of the educational books or other materials which we conscientiously and ethically desire to recommend to teachers or to the public.

16. Although as teachers we claim all honorable rights as citizens of our democracy, including the right of protection from the damaging influence of petty prejudices, yet we recognize that the nature of the educative process which we direct requires that the conduct of the teachers conform to the desirable patterns or standards of behavior of the better and more wholesome members of the community.

17. We will have reverence for all that is good, and so teach that we will encourage in our pupils the development of the fundamental virtues involved in the good life. We will respect as sacred the right of each individual to his own religious faith and worship, and we will not seek to impose upon those we teach either our own religious creed or our antagonism to theirs.

Professional Organizations

A profession cannot exist without professional organizations. It is the organization that binds the professional workers together, makes them cognizant of their problems, protects them from outside pressures, insists on professional competency and performance by its members, and enables them to surmount the barriers in their paths. Also, it is the professional organization that puts the welfare of the public above the welfare of the individual members.

The professional teachers' organizations should keep the welfare of the pupils before the teachers and the public. At the depths of the Great Depression of the 'thirties Professor George S. Counts shocked the educational world with the assertion, "The teachers should deliberately reach for power and then make the most of their conquest."

For docile teachers, trained in the traditional role of servitude, this was strong doctrine. However, his analysis is quite convincing:

Representing as they do, not the interests of the moment or of any special class, but rather the common and abiding interests of the people, teachers are under heavy social obligation to protect and further these interests. In this they occupy a relatively unique position in society. Also, since the profession should embrace scientists and scholars of the highest ranks, as well as teachers working at all levels of the educational system, it has at its disposal, as no other group, the knowledge and wisdom of the ages. It is scarcely thinkable that these men and women would ever act as selfishly or bungle as badly as have the so-called "practical" men of our generation—the politicians, the financiers, the industrialists. If all of these facts are taken into account, instead of shunning power, the profession should rather seek power, and then strive to use that power fully and wisely, and in the interests of the great masses of people.³

In spite of this pronouncement, it must be admitted by the impartial observer that "the real control of education rests in the hands of various relatively small, compactly organized, self-seeking groups outside the teaching profession." The chambers of commerce, the manufacturers' associations, the medical associations, the motion picture producers' associations, the newspaper publishers' associations, the radio industry associations, the patriotic societies, the service clubs, the war veterans' organizations, and the women's clubs do not hesitate to influence educational policy. It oftentimes appears to the observer that these organizations function largely in the interests of their groups.

Should the teachers, who have the most at stake, who know the most about the project, and who, as Counts says, "have

³ George S. Counts, *Dare the School Remake the Social Order?* New York: John Day Co., Inc., 1932, pp. 29-30.

the interests of the pupils at heart," stand by idly? Elsewhere, Counts declares, "educational policy will tend to be blind and uninformed if those who have seriously studied the science and art of education and who are actually engaged in education as a life career do not cooperate in the same process, usually in a position of leadership."⁴

Individually, teachers can do little to press their claims to leadership. Collectively, through their professional organizations, they can make their voices heard and their power felt. Professional teachers cannot dodge some responsibilities for remolding and reshaping the world. What group is in a better position to extol the ideals of freedom, justice, opportunity, and status? Teachers owe to humanity their support of worthy causes—social, economic, and political.

It should be obvious to every reader that organized teachers should influence the educational policies of the district in which they teach. No less important than the performance of the individual teacher—in fact, the final determinant of that performance—is the educational policy of the school system in which he works. To a great extent, the formulation, initiation, guidance, and support of educational policies are the responsibility of the teachers, individually and collectively.

The adoption of educational policies is a public function carried on by public officials elected for that purpose. But the formulation of the policies is a professional responsibility. The school administrator who fails to capitalize upon the experiences and wisdom of his staff in formulating his proposals to the board is doomed to at least partial failure. Oftentimes, school administrators do not appreciate the wisdom of this course of action, and unless the teachers, principals, and supervisors are organized, they are ignored in the formative stages of educational policies. In recent years professional organizations have assumed more and more responsibility in influencing and making policy.

Less controversial is the role of the professional organization in the improvement of the performance of its members and the

⁴ Ernest O. Melby (Ed.), "Mobilizing Educational Resources"; *Sixth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society*, New York: Harper & Bros., 1943, p. 30.

advancement of the research upon which such progress depends. This function was recognized years ago. In fact, the early professional organizations were built around teachers' institutes and conventions. These conventions have afforded the teachers their only opportunity of seeing and hearing the authors of professional books and school executives in high positions. Although the humorist has talked about taking the "toot" out of the institute, to most teachers a convention is an inspiration, giving the "lift" needed for undertaking the work of the new school year. In fact, many teachers still regard the convention program as the "pay-off"; if the program is poor, it is commonly thought that the professional dues have been wasted. Teachers in service need more, not less, discussions on the knowledges, skills, techniques, and methods involved in effective educational programs.

In recent years teachers' organizations are paying more attention to teachers' welfare (the topics discussed in Chapter 2): salaries, tenure, retirement, sick leave, sabbatical leave, etc.

Probably the role of professional organizations is best illustrated by the Platform of the National Education Association. In the 1931 convention a committee was appointed to draw up a permanent platform for the NEA. This platform was adopted at the 1932 convention. Since that time the platform has been restudied by each annual Committee on Resolutions and changed in the light of new needs and purposes. Resolutions are adopted in each year, dealing with the specific issues pressing at that time. The platform, then, is supplemented by the annual resolutions.

The National Education Association believes that education is the inalienable right of every American; that it is essential to our society for the promotion and preservation of democratic ideals. Therefore, the Association declares its convictions and challenges its members to leadership in attaining the objectives of this covenant.

I. THE CHILD

Every child, regardless of race, belief, economic status, residence, or physical handicap, should have the opportunity for fullest development

in mental, moral, social, and physical health, and in the attitudes, knowledge, habits, and skills that are essential for individual happiness and effective citizenship in a democracy. As means to this end, the Association advocates:

[A] Enriched curriculums that prepare the child for his cultural, vocational, recreational, social, and civic responsibilities, and that take into account the interests, needs, and abilities of individuals.

[B] Socially desirable environment that will give a background of more fertile experience. The radio and motion pictures are of such momentous force in the life of the child that every effort should be exerted toward the continuous improvement of motion pictures and radio programs.

[C] Appropriate instruction in health which will help the child to understand the scientific basis of health and to develop health habits. This will include scientific instruction regarding the effects of alcohol and narcotics upon the human body and upon society.

[D] Health services that will strengthen the effectiveness of individuals as citizens. The school should fight the evils of malnutrition, physical ailments, and lack of physical comforts by securing adequate food, clothing, and medical care thru coordinated efforts of local, state, and federal agencies for the children who are in need.

[E] Amendment of the Constitution of the United States to provide for the prohibition of child labor.

[F] The right to unfettered teaching, which will aid the child to adjust himself to his environment and to changing social conditions thru the development of habits of sound thinking. The fundamental principles of American democracy demand that students be informed concerning controversial issues.

[G] Systematic programs of vocational and educational guidance, vocational placement, and followup, in charge of competent persons especially equipped for the work.

[H] Recreational programs that lead toward constructive use of leisure time.

II. THE TEACHER

Teachers, regardless of position or title, are professional workers in a common cause, and, as such, have certain responsibilities and rights. The interests of the child and of the profession require:

[A] Teachers of sound character and good health, with high civic ideals, who have been effectively prepared for the service which they

are to perform. Their education should be rich in cultural, professional, and subjectmatter content, and adapted to the demands of actual service.

[B] Teachers who have the professional attitude in regard to self-improvement.

[1] Those in service should be students of professional problems, seeking in every way to develop better educational practices.

[2] Teachers should observe the principles of conduct set forth in the Code of Ethics adopted by the National Education Association.

[3] Teachers should have membership in local, state, and national education associations.

[C] Teachers who are protected in their Constitutional rights of freedom of speech, press, and assembly. Intellectual freedom is a public safeguard. It is the surest guarantee of orderly change and progress.

[1] The teacher's conduct should be subject only to such controls as those to which other responsible citizens are subjected.

[2] Teachers should have the privilege of presenting all points of view without danger of reprisal by school administrations or by pressure groups in the community.

[3] Teachers should have the right of protection from intimidation thru fear of loss of position, reduction of salary, loss of opportunities for advancement, or deprivation of their usual assignments, responsibilities, and authorities.

[4] Teachers should have the right to organize, and to support organizations that they consider to be in their own and in the public interest. Likewise, they should have the right to participation in determining school policies and school management.

[D] Teachers who are protected by salaries adequate to attract and hold in the service men and women of marked ability and thoro training.

[E] Teachers who are protected, in case of disability or old age, by means of sound retirement systems and, in case of financial emergency, by credit unions.

[F] Teachers who are protected from discharge for political, religious, personal, or other unjust reasons by effective tenure laws.

III. THE ADULT

The adult furnishes to society leadership and vision; therefore, it is essential that he be trained in the fundamentals of education, be made responsive to the demands upon him as a citizen, and be enabled to give guidance to youth. The Association advocates concerted local, state, and national efforts to attain these ends thru:

[A] Adult education that enriches the cultural aspects of life, prepares for parenthood, provides opportunity to develop personal talents, improves or retrains for greater efficiency, and emphasizes the responsibilities of social life.

[1] The existence of illiteracy in the United States presents an insistent challenge to laymen and teachers.

[2] The minimum requirements for naturalization should include the ability to read and to write the English language understandingly; a general knowledge of local, state, and national government; the desire to exercise the right of suffrage; and evidence of mental and economic competency. Provision should be made to receive all persons into citizenship with suitable ceremony.

[B] Recreational programs that will give training in the use of leisuretime activities.

IV. ORGANIZATION

A combination of national, state and local support of public schools is necessary to provide adequate educational opportunities in all sections of the various states. For maximum effectiveness the Association believes that:

[A] The national government should study, stimulate, and support education in the interest of a high type of citizenship.

[1] The federal government should disseminate information on problems of education.

[2] A Department of Education with a secretary in the President's Cabinet should be established.

[B] The state government should organize and direct education within the state.

[1] The state department of education in each state should:

[a] Thru experimentation and leadership, stimulate local communities to provide adequate programs of education.

[b] Provide and administer a system of certification of teachers based upon professional standards. The Association recommends a minimum of four years of college preparation.

[c] Certify as to the adequacy of local programs of education in meeting state standards.

[2] Each state should provide for a system of free schools, beginning with the nursery school and extending thru the university, with a full school day, a full school year, and class enrolment not to exceed

thirty, with special attention to groups of exceptional children, and with provision for adult education.

[a] Schools for children in rural communities should be recognized as essential and integral parts of the public-school system.

[b] Exceptional children, whether gifted or handicapped, should receive instruction, guidance, and special care in accordance with their respective needs.

[c] Every state should provide a complete program of vocational education for youths and adults. *First*, classes should be organized and maintained as integral parts of local school systems. *Second*, parttime and evening classes should be provided when necessary.

[3] Every state should provide for the training of teachers and should establish standards of qualification.

[C] The local district should organize and administer its school system in conformity with the standards set by the state.

[1] Local, district, and state boards of control should be chosen on a nonpartisan basis, selected at large from the areas that the board is to serve. Terms of office should be such that a majority of the board will not come into office at any one time.

[2] The local unit of school control should be large enough to justify the employment of men and women with special training in educational leadership for administration and supervision.

[3] Lay boards should be guided by the recommendations of professional educators.

[4] School budgets should be prepared by the school superintendent and his staff and approved by the board of education.

[5] The selection and promotion of teachers should be on a professional basis. *First*, teachers of equivalent training and experience should receive equal pay, regardless of sex or grade taught. *Second*, teachers should not be discriminated against because of race, color, belief, residence, or economic or marital status.

V. FINANCE

Combined liberal support from national, state, and local sources is necessary to provide a complete program of adequate educational opportunities in all sections of the various states. In order to make this program possible with maximum effectiveness the Association advocates:

[A] A coordination of the taxing policies of national, state, and local units of government.

[B] The federal government should give financial assistance to the states and territories for the support of education.

[1] Federal funds should be provided with the understanding that the expenditure of such funds and the shaping of educational policies shall be matters of state and local control.

[2] Special federal funds should be made available without federal dictation to prevent the interruption of education in areas devastated by widespread disasters.

[3] Until Congress establishes a Department of Education, funds appropriated to the Office of Education should be augmented to make its efforts increasingly effective.

[C] Each state should provide for the support from public funds of a complete system of free schools.

[D] Each unit of government should be free from measures designed to place a constitutional limit on taxation within the various states.

[E] Boards of education should have financial autonomy in order to fulfill their responsibilities.

[F] Research in public finance should discover and disseminate facts concerning the best sources for revenues and their efficient expenditure.

[G] A continuing program of enlightenment of the public, pupils, and teachers regarding the financial needs of the schools and regarding the principles of taxation should be carried on within the various states.

VI. PUBLIC RELATIONS

Education should prepare each generation to meet the social, economic, and political problems of an ever-changing world. All activities of the school should contribute to the habits and attitudes that manifest themselves in integrity in private and public life, law observance, and intelligent participation in civic affairs and world citizenship. To establish thru education closer relationship of people, the Association advocates:

[A] Continuous programs to interpret to the community the aims, practices, and achievements of the schools.

[B] National movements among parents and teachers to safeguard the welfare of children and to bring the school, the home, and the community into closer cooperation.

[C] World education associations that will encourage systematic interchange of professional knowledge, visits, and conferences.

[D] Teaching children the truth about war, its costs in human life and ideals and in material wealth; the values of peace; and the need of an organization of nations with power to preserve peace.

[E] The teaching of history in such a manner that, while at all times presenting accurate statements of fact, it will emphasize the virtues and achievements of all nations and increase international goodwill.

The National Education Association

An understanding of the place and functions of teachers' organizations includes some familiarity with the National Education Association. Its history is briefed as follows:

HISTORY AND PURPOSE OF THE NEA

In response to a "call" signed by presidents of ten state teachers associations, 43 educators gathered in Philadelphia on August 26, 1857, and founded the National Teachers' Association "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the teaching profession and to promote the cause of education thruout the country."

In 1870 the National Association of School Superintendents and the American Normal School Association united with the NTA to form the National Educational Association. The superintendent and normal-school groups became departments. In the years since, the Association has added other departments until it now has 28.

In 1884 a large and forward-looking convention was held in Madison, Wisconsin. After this meeting membership, until then very small, increased considerably. The NEA secured incorporation under laws of the District of Columbia in 1886. In 1906 it was chartered by Congress as the National Educational Association of the United States.

In 1892, with the appointment of its famous Committee of Ten, the NEA entered the field of investigation and research. In 1903 began the Association's active program of teacher welfare.

Headquarters were brought to Washington, D. C., in 1917. Three years later the NEA purchased its own building at 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, which it enlarged a decade later. The program of service materially expanded in the 1920's—development of a professional headquarters staff; beginning of *The Journal* in January 1921, of the research division in 1922; an increasing program of publication and educational interpretation. Membership in the Association increased twentyfold in the next two decades.

When membership became so large that it was no longer possible to have members vote directly on association business, a Representative Assembly, composed of delegates from local and state education associations, was created in 1920, uniting local, state, and national into an organic whole.⁵

Among the numerous achievements of the NEA are the following: It has served as the model and the inspiration for the various state and local associations; has helped more than half of the teachers in the nation secure tenure and retirement systems; and has helped raise the standards of preparation for teachers and contributed through its publications and conventions to the pre-service and in-service professional growth of countless teachers. It has protected thousands of teachers against unfair dismissal; has enlisted support for education from important national groups, women's clubs, service clubs, magazine and newspaper editors and advertisers; and has furnished national leadership in education, formulating and disseminating longtime policies.

The National Education Association has accomplished some of its most notable work through its committees, commissions, and councils. The report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary Education, published in 1893, marked the beginning of the emancipation of secondary schools from college domination. Most of the curriculum revisions of two decades were keynoted by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. The Depression brought forth the report of the Committee on Social-Economic Goals of America. These few cases are illustrative of the great influence of the numerous special studies sponsored by the NEA.

At the present writing the NEA has six commissions and councils functioning as deliberative bodies, guiding the destinies of American Education: the Educational Policies Commission;⁶ the Legislative Commission; the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education; the National Com-

⁵ *NEA Handbook*, First Edition, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1945, p. 9. See also: Mildred Sandison Fenner, *NEA History*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1945, 160 pp.

⁶ See John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*, New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, pp. 341-347.

mission on Safety Education; the National Council of Education; and the National Council on Teachers Retirement. Three of these have a secretary and staff at the NEA headquarters.

The NEA has standing committees in the fields of citizenship, credit unions, international relations, professional ethics, tax education and school finance, teacher preparation and certification, and tenure and academic freedom.

The NEA maintains joint committees on matters of mutual concern with The American Legion (American Education Week, sponsored each autumn, including Armistice Day), The American Library Association, The American Teachers Association (the official association for Negro teachers employed in the Southern states), and The National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

In 1945-46, the NEA included twenty-eight departments, each devoted to one aspect of American education. Ten of the most active of these departments maintained secretaries and staffs at the NEA office in Washington, D.C., including The American Association of School Administrators (since 1922), The Department of Elementary School Principals (1931), The National Association of Deans of Women (1931), The Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development (1936), The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation (1937), The National Association of Secondary School Principals (1940), The National Council for the Social Studies (1940), The NEA Department of Classroom Teachers (1940), and The Department of Higher Education (1944). The affairs of the Department of Rural Education are administered by the Division of Rural Service (1936). The remaining departments cover the entire range of educational interests, from Adult Education to Vocational Education, including industrial arts, art, business, home economics, kindergarten-primary education, music, journalism, speech, science, etc. The services of the NEA have permeated this and every other manuscript dealing with the teaching profession prepared in the United States since 1892.

The NEA memberships in 1945 are listed in Table X.⁷

⁷ *NEA Handbook*, First Edition, 1945, page 31.

TABLE X. NEA MEMBERSHIP—PER CENT OF TEACHERS ENROLLED

Estimated Number of Teachers Employed May 31, 1945		Number of Teachers with NEA Dues Paid for 1944-45		Per cent of Teachers Paid for 1944-45	
Total 882,125		331,605		38	
1. New York	71,000	1. Pennsylvania ..	31,571	1. Hawaii	97
2. Pennsylvania ..	59,983	2. Ohio	24,578	2. Utah	96
3. Illinois	46,200	3. California	22,924	3. Alaska	84
4. Texas	45,500	4. Illinois	17,259	4. Oregon	83
5. California	44,000	5. New York	15,829	5. Arizona	75
6. Ohio	40,000	6. Indiana	13,402	6. Nevada	73
7. Michigan	33,750	7. Alabama	11,780	7. Washington	68
8. New Jersey	27,500	8. North Carolina ..	8,992	8. Ohio	61
9. North Carolina ..	26,300	9. Kansas	8,832	9. Alabama	60
10. Missouri	24,310	10. Virginia	8,802	10. Indiana	59
11. Massachusetts ..	24,190	11. Washington	8,775	11. Dist. of Columbia	59
12. Iowa	22,912	12. New Jersey	8,555	12. Delaware	56
13. Indiana	22,800	13. Texas	8,516	13. Pennsylvania ..	53
14. Georgia	22,750	14. Tennessee	8,253	14. California	52
15. Wisconsin	20,500	15. Michigan	8,092	15. Kansas	50
16. Minnesota	20,300	16. Georgia	7,838	16. Virginia	49
17. Alabama	19,500	17. Iowa	7,351	17. Colorado	48
18. Tennessee	19,500	18. West Virginia ..	7,253	18. West Virginia ..	47
19. Virginia	18,000	19. Kentucky	7,195	19. Tennessee	42
20. Kentucky	17,700	20. Missouri	7,070	20. Idaho	41
21. Kansas	17,500	21. Wisconsin	6,756	21. Kentucky	41
22. Oklahoma	17,500	22. Oregon	6,671	22. Vermont	41
23. Mississippi	15,500	23. Massachusetts ..	5,001	23. Maryland	40
24. West Virginia ..	15,300	24. Minnesota	4,893	24. North Dakota ..	40
25. South Carolina ..	15,192	25. Arkansas	4,728	25. Maine	39
26. Louisiana	14,500	26. Utah	4,411	26. Illinois	37
27. Nebraska	13,500	27. Colorado	4,350	27. Arkansas	37
28. Florida	13,407	28. South Carolina ..	4,164	28. Wyoming	37
29. Washington	13,000	29. Oklahoma	4,151	29. New Mexico	36
30. Arkansas	12,828	30. Louisiana	4,138	30. Georgia	34
31. Connecticut	10,300	31. Maryland	3,603	31. North Carolina ..	34
32. Colorado	9,000	32. Florida	3,271	32. Wisconsin	33
33. Maryland	9,000	33. Mississippi	3,124	33. New Hampshire ..	32
34. Oregon	8,000	34. Hawaii	2,916	34. Iowa	32
35. Puerto Rico	8,000	35. Connecticut	2,872	35. New Jersey	31
36. South Dakota ..	7,500	36. Nebraska	2,808	36. Missouri	29
37. North Dakota ..	6,870	37. North Dakota ..	2,729	37. Louisiana	29
38. Maine	6,100	38. Arizona	2,679	38. Connecticut	28
39. Montana	4,694	39. Maine	2,358	39. South Carolina ..	27
40. Utah	4,600	40. Dist. of Columbia	1,960	40. Florida	24
41. Idaho	4,141	41. Idaho	1,716	41. Montana	24
42. New Mexico	4,024	42. New Mexico	1,440	42. Minnesota	24
43. Rhode Island	3,884	43. South Dakota ..	1,199	43. Michigan	24
44. Arizona	3,570	44. Montana	1,136	44. Oklahoma	24
45. Dist. of Columbia	3,350	45. Vermont	1,041	45. New York	22
46. Hawaii	3,000	46. Wyoming	974	46. Nebraska	21
47. New Hampshire ..	2,950	47. New Hampshire ..	953	47. Massachusetts ..	21
48. Wyoming	2,650	48. Delaware	929	48. Mississippi	20
49. Vermont	2,570	49. Nevada	725	49. Texas	19
50. Delaware	1,650	50. Rhode Island	385	50. South Dakota ..	16
51. Nevada	1,000	51. Alaska	295	51. Rhode Island	10
52. Alaska	350	52. Puerto Rico	186	52. Puerto Rico	2
Other U. S. areas			27		
Foreign			149		

State Teachers Associations

The state teachers association represents the individual and collective strength of the teachers of any given state. Its influence is a measure of the efficacy of its structure and the support of its members. It promotes "the *esprit de corps*, solidarity, economic and social betterment of its own members, and, in the last analysis, the welfare of the body politic."⁸

The Pennsylvania State Education Association is one of the oldest and most active of state teachers associations. According to an official publication:

The Association since its organization in 1852 has initiated or fostered every forward movement in education. All progressive school legislation has had the pronounced endorsement of the Association. The following are a few of its many achievements:

- The Department of Public Instruction
- The County Superintendency
- State Normal Schools and State Teachers Colleges
- Free Textbooks and Supplies
- Extensions of Minimum School Term
- Payment of Teachers for Attending Institutes
- Compulsory Attendance Law
- Vocational Schools and Departments
- High Schools
- Higher Minimum Requirements for Teachers—both Academic and Professional
- . . . The School Code.⁹

Some of the major accomplishments of the PSEA during the past quarter-century are listed as follows: new methods of distributing state aid; properly qualified teachers; minimum teachers' salaries; annual increments for teachers; cost-of-living salary adjustments; equalization of financial support of schools; public school employees' retirement system; state aid for transportation of pupils; employment security; provision for specific

⁸ George E. Walk, "Program and Obligations of State Associations," *Proceedings of the Eighty-first Annual Meeting, NEA, 1948*, pp. 30-34.

⁹ *Professional Activities for Instructors and Students in Colleges that Prepare Teachers*, Harrisburg, Pa.: Pennsylvania State Education Assn., October, 1945, p. 10.

causes for dismissal and suspension of teachers; and sabbatical leave.¹⁰

The objectives of the Pennsylvania State Education Association were listed as follows: "(1) to assume leadership in the state in educational matters; (2) to sponsor and promote legislation favorable to the schools; (3) to carry on fact-finding activities and furnish information to local units and members; and (4) to adopt a code of ethics and to make every effort to put it into practice."¹¹

Although the Pennsylvania state association has a wonderful record, it is probably no more noteworthy than the record of many younger state associations. The history of education in any state is in large measure the history of the state teachers association. Counts' challenge is nothing new; the united school teachers of practically every state of the union have furnished the leadership of most of the educational reforms and advancements.

State membership achievements in 1945 are given in the Table XI.¹²

The Local Teachers Association

In some respects the local teachers association is more important than either the state or national association. It represents the area where the final educational program is planned and executed. It has more direct influence on the teachers than either of the two larger bodies; here the association is a face-to-face relationship. It can stimulate professional zeal, growth, and development much easier than the more remote organizations. It can protect and advance the interests of its members much better; it is on the ground for defense of those under fire and its members sense the sources from which unfair criticisms emanate. It can give a feeling of security of position and free the teacher from many fears and anxieties. Moreover, it can insist upon the ethical conduct of all its members. Lastly, it is the natural unit of organization for state and national pur-

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 12-13.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 10.

¹² *NEA Handbook*, Second Edition, 1945-46, p. 23.

TABLE XI. STATE MEMBERSHIP ACHIEVEMENT, 1946

States, and other areas	Estimated number of teachers 1945-46	Membership in State Associations	
		May 31, 1945	May 31, 1946
Total	882,980	733,409	735,804
Alabama	20,276	14,272	13,643
Arizona	3,854	3,245	3,271
Arkansas	12,770	9,540	10,027
California	43,000	38,672	40,930
Colorado	8,569	8,953	9,070
Connecticut	9,558	9,769	9,843
Delaware	1,682	1,612	1,617
Florida	13,653	10,502	10,847
Georgia	22,107	14,338	15,615
Idaho	3,987	4,074	3,999
Illinois	46,500	40,000	39,500
Indiana	22,800	23,294	23,652
Iowa	22,949	22,135	20,716
Kansas	17,500	16,428	16,634
Kentucky	17,966	16,487	16,917
Louisiana	14,500	10,298	10,400
Maine	6,027	6,162	6,003
Maryland	9,346	4,500	5,000
Massachusetts	23,862	21,000	20,000
Michigan	33,750	30,750	30,700
Minnesota	19,701	14,630	14,973
Mississippi	15,500	8,586	9,102
Missouri	23,949	22,860	22,730
Montana	4,631	3,655	3,311
Nebraska	12,775	11,497	11,490
Nevada	982	720	646
New Hampshire	2,965	2,870	2,600
New Jersey	27,000	25,448	25,000
New Mexico	4,042	4,224	4,242
New York	71,963	43,500	43,500
North Carolina	25,800	18,184	18,072
North Dakota	6,608	5,535	5,438
Ohio	40,896	38,778	39,085
Oklahoma	17,500	14,690	15,807
Oregon	8,588	6,625	6,570
Pennsylvania	59,669	53,077	52,025
Rhode Island	3,803	3,884	3,803
South Carolina	15,537	8,504	7,408
South Dakota	7,050	6,906	6,530
Tennessee	19,322	17,473	17,659
Texas	46,000	33,710	35,638
Utah	4,806	4,802	5,024
Vermont	2,461	2,674	2,539
Virginia	18,585	14,374	14,479
Washington	13,300	11,750	11,756
West Virginia	15,226	13,050	12,237
Wisconsin	20,500	21,105	21,000
Wyoming	2,547	2,178	2,318
Other areas:			
Alaska	345	255	235
Dist. of Col.	3,473	2,507	2,103
Hawaii	3,300	2,827	3,100
Puerto Rico	9,100	6,500	7,000

poses; locals are usually affiliated with state and national associations.

The Pennsylvania State Education Association recognizes four objectives for local associations: "(1) providing a medium where teachers may combine their resources and experiences, study their own problems, discuss local issues, and take appropriate group action, thus contributing to the building of their profession; (2) devising and promoting programs to arouse community interest and secure community support in the problems of education; (3) stimulating professional enthusiasm, initiative and spirit; and, (4) improving the professional, economic, social and civic status of the membership, who, in keeping with the ideals of American democracy, are charged with the responsibility of its preservation."¹³

The National Education Association has made the following pronouncement on the ideal local education association:

The local association is the cradle of democracy in professional organization. It is close to the people and to the conditions which concern the schools. It is the training ground of leadership; a laboratory for cooperative projects. State and national associations gain in strength as professional attitudes and loyalties are built up thru the activities of local associations. Local, state, and national associations go forward together. Today 1,368 local associations are affiliated with the NEA.

As far back as the 1790's, teachers were organizing locally. The Society of Associated Teachers of New York City and the Associated Instructors of Youth in the Town of Boston and Its Vicinity were two of the earliest teachers associations.

The Ideal Local Association:

1. Enrolls all the educational workers in its area.
2. Has a dynamic program for serving its members and the community.
3. Has a written constitution.
4. Meets regularly (at least four times a year).
5. Has dues unified with state and national associations and provides a program of action.
6. Collects unified dues for local, state, and national associations.

¹³ *Handbook for PSEA Local Branches*, Harrisburg, Pa.: Pennsylvania State Education Assn., October, 1945, pp. 6-7.

7. Plans its programs carefully to interest the majority of the group.
8. Keeps accurate records regarding all business of the association.
9. Maintains continuous affiliation with the state association (if the state provides for such relationship) and with the NEA.
10. Makes provisions for expenses of delegates to attend state and national conventions.
11. Carries on all letterheads and publications a statement clearly indicating the status of its affiliation with the state and national associations.
12. Answers official mail from state and national associations promptly and carefully.
13. Issues a local publication if finances permit.
14. Maintains active committees for the following purposes:
 - A. To formulate and carry out a progressive program for improvement of local educational services.
 - B. To provide a forum for discussion of educational and professional organization problems of the state and nation.
 - C. To develop good fellowship by providing social and recreational activities for its members.
 - D. To carry on an effective public relations program.
 - E. To work with lay organizations in community activities.
 - F. To arrange meetings at which candidates for public office may discuss their platforms.
 - G. To cooperate with the state association on legislation affecting the schools such as school support, tenure, retirement, minimum salary schedules.
 - H. To cooperate with the NEA on national legislation affecting education.
 - I. To care for the welfare of members thru such activities as:
 - Certification
 - Consumers cooperatives
 - Contractual relationships
 - Credit unions
 - Group insurance
 - Hospitalization
 - Loan and relief funds
 - Retirement
 - Sabbatical leave
 - Salary schedules
 - School budgets and finance

Sick leave
Teacher load
Teacher rating
Tenure.

The work of our state and national associations often seems far removed from the average teacher. He may live and retire without ever taking an active part in these organizations. He may pay dues and attend meetings, but he may never raise his voice to utter a conviction; he may never lift his finger to further a project. In the local association, however, working among friends over problems of vital personal concern, he will have a feeling of belonging; he will be aware of an urge to take part. If he works, his interests will grow; he will become a better teacher; his community will be a better community; his profession will become a better profession. The state and national associations will seem less remote and increased interest and participation will come as a by-product of local work well performed.

With active participation in local association problems, will come a keener interest and intelligent support in state and national organization affairs, and the NEA will have a new meaning and influence to thousands of teachers.¹⁴

A Good Member

According to a PSEA publication:

- A good member contributes financially and professionally to his professional organizations, local, state, and national.
- A good member interprets the objectives and accomplishments of his professional organizations.
- A good member accepts willingly the responsibility of assignments to participate in the activities of his association.
- A good member adheres strictly to the precepts of his professional Code of Ethics.
- A good member proclaims with pride his identity as a member of the teaching profession.
- A good member comprehends more fully the opportunities, the worth, and the dignity of teaching.
- A good member lives in such a democratic way as to dignify the teaching profession.
- A good member accepts a degree of responsibility for perpetuating and improving the cultural level of society.

¹⁴ *NEA Handbook*, Second Edition, 1945-46, p. 15.

A good member exercises discretion and good judgment in all community relationships.

A good member exercises the rights, responsibilities, and duties of citizenship.

A good member is a good American.¹⁵

A United Profession

If the local, state, and national teachers organizations are to be most successful, they must work together. The desired goal is to enroll every teacher in his local, state, and national organization. On February 9, 1944, the National Association of Secretaries of State Education Associations passed the following resolution:

If we are to build a strong professional organization, we should have one membership which includes local, state, and national memberships and a plan of organization and procedure such that in the formulation of policies, the ideas and viewpoints of the members may be expressed through the local and state organizations to the nation. The professional program would then be determined at the national level and be implemented by cooperative local, state, and national action.¹⁶

In 1944, the NEA Representative Assembly adopted the Five-Year Program of Unification, Expansion, and Development designed to enroll all teachers of the United States in one united association. The goals of the program are:

(1) A strong and vigorous local association in every community, working as an integral part of the state and national organizations.

(2) Unified adequate dues covering local, state, and national associations collected by the local association.

(3) A total membership of 90 per cent of the nation's teachers in local, state, and national associations by 1949.

(4) Integrated committees with the chairmen of the standing committees of state and local associations constituting the Advisory Committee of the National Association.

(5) An expanded program of service to the children and the teachers of the nation and of the world.¹⁷

¹⁵ *Handbook for PSEA Local Branches*, 1945, pp. 20-21.

¹⁶ *NEA Handbook*, First Edition, 1945, p. 19.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

Conclusion

From the above discussion we may safely conclude that teaching can become a profession. Teaching has the requisites of a profession; it involves the highest and one of the most specialized types of social service. The teachers associations are endeavoring to guarantee this type of service to school patrons through professional codes of ethics. Great strides toward the professional goal have been made in recent years, through the efforts of professional organizations, national, state, and local. Although advancing the welfare of the members, these organizations are assuming more and more leadership of the people of the nation, states, and communities in all matters having educational implications. At some levels in most communities, and at all levels in some communities, teaching has attained the status of a profession. In the remaining communities teaching is on the march.

STUDY AIDS

1. Debate the issue: Resolved, that teaching is an established profession.
2. What specialized type of social service do teachers render?
3. Specifically, what is "professional judgment"?
4. What is a professional code of ethics? What function does it serve?
5. Should a teacher tutor his students for pay? Why, or why not?
6. Should a teacher interfere in any matter between a pupil and another teacher? Why, or why not?
7. Should a teacher apply for a position not vacant? Why, or why not?
8. Should a teacher apply to a school board member for a position? Why, or why not?
9. Should a teacher publicly criticize other teachers? Why, or why not?

10. Should a teacher wear a partisan campaign button to school? Why, or why not?
11. Should a teacher register with a commercialized teachers agency? Why, or why not?
12. List reasons for belonging to the National Education Association.
13. List reasons for belonging to your state teachers organization.
14. List reasons for belonging to your local teachers organization.
15. In your opinion, should teachers "deliberately reach for power and then make the most of their conquest"?
16. What service does the NEA Platform perform?
17. In which states are the teachers most effectively organized? What is the relative position of your state?
18. If possible, visit a convention for teachers under either the auspices of the state educational association or the local teachers organization.
19. Debate the issue: Resolved, that teachers should belong to a united profession, involving local, state, and national organizations.

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CHAPTER 7

THE TEACHER'S RELATIONSHIPS

One of the most interesting and most challenging aspects of the teacher's role in life is the many personal contacts he has with others. Contrary to a popular impression, a good teacher must be primarily interested in human beings, even more so than in books. Moreover, the teacher's success or failure in the classroom, the school, and the community will be determined largely by how well he gets on with pupils, parents, and school officials. If an individual is not interested in a variety of human contacts and relationships, he should shun teaching as a career. A far less adaptable person than a good teacher must be, can succeed in a large number of other vocations.

Fortunately, satisfactory human relationships, like everything else, can be learned. Although scientific findings in this realm are limited, much empirical lore is available. This chapter is concerned with generally accepted principles in the area of the teacher's relationships.

Teacher and Pupil

The teacher's most important, and the most obvious, relationships are with pupils. Theoretically, in these relationships, as in all others, the teacher should be actuated by love of fellowmen. Actually, there are several barriers to the realization of this ideal. First, a person cannot help liking some individuals more than others. Although the teacher should love all his pupils, he will find it necessary to force himself to be kind and sympathetic in his relations with some of them. As an ideal, he should endeavor to treat all impartially and considerately.

Also, as Dewey and Bode warn us, we should avoid a sickly sentimentality about children. All of us know some "spoiled brats," whose parents and teachers indulged them too much.

The mature person in most instances knows far more about what is good for a child than he does. As Hart's investigation showed, even the children appreciate firmness and frankness, when and where necessary.

In his relationships with pupils and parents a teacher can take his cue from some of the other professions—law, medicine, and the ministry, for example. Information given to the members of these professions is considered as confidential, and must not be discussed with any one unless it is in the best interests of the person concerned, presumably another member of the profession. Probably teachers err here more than in any other single respect. Some are inclined to gossip about their pupils individually and collectively; some treat the pupils' confidences too lightly; some few, unfortunately, cannot be trusted. When the pupil discovers these facts—as he usually does—the teacher in question, as well as all others, past and future, is regarded with suspicion and distrust.

An old axiom says, "familiarity breeds contempt." This is as true of teachers as it is of other persons. The teacher given to overdue familiarity is usually not nearly so popular as he supposes. It is a good rule not to worry about one's popularity; popularity won at the price of familiarity costs too much. Many a popular teacher has discovered in a crisis that he has little or no influence with one of his "pals" among the students. Moreover, the cultivation of a given student or clique of students is readily detected by the other students. In such instances the teacher loses the confidence as well as the respect of the majority of the students.

The above must not be construed to mean that the teacher must be "hard-boiled." Of course, the nature of the relationships varies with the maturity of the children being taught. But even the most mature students should be made to feel the respect and the consideration that the true teacher holds for them. Sarcasm, ridicule, evidence of contempt in any form should be beneath the dignity of any teacher. Any child is entitled to courtesy, consideration, and justice.

Simple as the above principles may be, many teachers have failed to put them into practice. Many failures are due to the

disregard of the common-sense amenities of life. (In this connection, the student may wish to re-examine Chapter 4). Later courses in psychology, sociology, and child growth and development can be depended upon to give greater insight into the problems in this area. For the time being, it suffices to call them to the attention of the prospective teacher.

Teacher and Parent

Much of the teacher's influence is negated in the home. Youngsters who do not fully understand the teachings of the classroom are forever misquoting, praising, and censuring teachers at home. Sometimes parents misunderstand their children's versions of what happens in the classroom; sometimes they find themselves violently in disagreement with the versions carried home, and sometimes they reflect their misgivings regarding all teachers in what they do and say in a given situation. When caught in such a situation, the child rarely knows what to do.

Many generations ago, teachers discovered that if they were to have the confidence of the child and his parents, they must have contacts with the home. Usually, the suspicions of the parents vanish at the first contact with the teacher; they realize that the half-baked versions of school happenings that the immature children bring home are somewhat less than the whole truth. They learn of their children's difficulties and deficiencies, their merits and excellencies. They learn something of the teacher's problems in dealing with so many children at once. They are impressed with the changes that have been made in education since their student days.

Much emphasis in sound school administration is devoted to developing more satisfactory school and home relationships. Many school systems encourage, and some few require, home visitations. In the opinion of many authorities, there is no satisfactory substitute for visits to the homes of the pupils by the teacher immediately concerned. Other systems use so-called visiting teachers, who can visit in school hours, make case studies and reports, and do a more professional job.

It is doubtful that much can be known about a child without knowing his home, parents, and other immediate relatives. The environment is regarded as a very potent factor in child development. Moreover, the difficulties of parents are reflected in the problems of their children. The child from a foreign-speaking home will probably not be regarded in school as being nearly as bright as he is, because of his linguistic deficiencies—which are reflected in his reading ability, in his test scores, and in his intelligence ratings. The child from the broken home is usually at sea, searching for some sure port where he can unload his cargo of insecurity. The sickly, undernourished child is a school casualty unless the home is known, and home cooperation is secured in a constructive program.

Many devices have been invented to bring the parents to school: the meetings of the Parent-Teacher Association, school exhibits, special days and programs, night sessions for parents (where the parent follows the pupil's schedule and contacts all of his teachers). Other school systems succeed with more informal devices, classroom visits and individual conferences, group classroom visitations, study groups, teas, and so forth. Whatever the device, the dividends are usually high. However, care must be used or the contact may result in more harm than good. A teacher who harangues parents about the deficiencies of their child is rendering a disservice to the system—especially so if the act takes place before an audience of other parents.

Most potent in this realm is the work of the Parent-Teacher Association. Established on a national basis as the *National Congress of Mothers* in 1897, reorganized as the *National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations* in 1907, the national organization became officially the *National Congress of Parents and Teachers* in 1924. Active chapters are found in every state in the union and in most of the larger communities in all states. It has as its objectives the promotion of child welfare in home, school, church, and community; the improvement of standards of home life; adequate laws for the care and protection of children; and closer relationships between the home and the school.

When kept within its legitimate bounds, it has been a god-send to the schools. In a few instances, it has usurped the authority of school officials and the functions of the professionally trained educator. The *National Congress of Parents and Teachers* stands for absolute non-interference with school administration; intelligent support of the school system; the development within the home of attitudes and conditions correlated with those created in the school; such sympathetic relations between parents and teachers as will lead to confidential and friendly consideration and solution of the problems of children; and the improvement of community conditions by joint action of teachers and parents.

Many innovations in American education are due to the support of the PTA, as it usually is called. Many associations have aided the school in securing new equipment of various sorts: pianos, phonographs, and radios, projectors and other visual aids, school libraries and supplementary books, school lunches and cafeterias, playgrounds and gymnasium equipment, art galleries and museums, and so forth. These gratuities are not unmixed blessings; many school districts have been slow to include moneys for such expenditures in the budget, relying upon the PTA to raise the money by entertainments and solicitations. In most instances, PTA support of such enterprises is only a transitional phase; sooner or later such items are carried in the regular school budget.

The local, state, and national PTAs have exerted great influence in the realm of school legislation. Most of the legitimate proposals of school administrators have found ready support in the PTA. The chronicle of educational achievement in recent years in most states is, in part, a tribute to the PTA.

The Teacher and the Community

It would be interesting to know the percentage of teacher failures due to the inability or unwillingness of the teacher to adapt himself to the community. Unquestionably, the success or failure of a given teacher is due in large measure to his standing and acceptance in the community. Quite naturally,

the community resents the advances of a person who would change it. Community conventions have the approval of the vast majority of the people who live there—if this were not true, they would move into other communities. When the teacher reflects upon the shortcomings of the community, he is treading on dangerous ground. But, if he did not do so, he would not be worth his salt. The test of a teacher is his ability to adapt himself to the community to the extent that he can change it in desirable directions, without upsetting the people.

The teacher should be cautioned to “make haste slowly.” Communities cannot be changed overnight. It would be well if the teacher investigated the community before he signed his contract to teach there. If he were not reasonably satisfied with the outlook he would be wise to seek another position elsewhere.

Of one thing we can be certain, communities have their conventions, mores, and idiosyncrasies. No two communities are exactly alike. In one community the teacher may not play cards without offending parents; in another, he may not smoke in public; in still another, he may not attend public dance halls; and, in still another, he may not attend cocktail parties. Of course, all of these prohibitions are restrictions upon the liberties of the individual teacher. However, it is doubtful that any of them are of sufficient importance to be magnified into major issues. If some teacher values one or more of these liberties to a greater extent than he does service to a given community, he should look for more compatible surroundings.

Teachers like to feel that they are entitled to all the liberties that other workers have. The fact is, because they are public servants, teachers cannot always live their lives as they would like to live them. A certain amount of conformity is expected of all teachers. Moreover, teachers are presumed to be the exemplars of all that parents cherish for their children. In fact, even the professional code says that the teacher's life should show that education does ennoble. In every state in the Union immorality is sufficient grounds for revoking a teacher's license. Obviously, few workers hold such an exalted position as a teacher does. A wise teacher will study his community. He

should avoid wrong and questionable associations; he should avoid identification with cliques and factions. His actions should always reflect his interest in the welfare of others. A teacher's decision with respect to his private life and habits must include some consideration of the unique role he plays in society, and his responsibilities to the pupils concerned.

Inasmuch as the community life itself is a large part of education, the teacher should know his community. The first and foremost goal of education is preparation for living. Wholesome living cannot be learned from poring over books; to a great extent it is a by-product of life itself. The wise teacher will see that his students study their community; it should be the source for problems, projects, activities, examples, and illustrations.

The successful teacher will be a good community worker. While remembering that his first obligation is to the school, he will assume all of the obligations of a first-rate citizen; he will vote, participate in public discussions, support public drives, join service organizations, and so forth. If convenient, he will live in the community where he teaches; there is considerable merit in the prescription that teachers reside in the communities where they teach. Requirements regarding residence should not be regarded as interferences with rights, but as opportunities for service.

The Teacher and the Businessman

Inasmuch as the business leaders control the wealth of the community, the state, and the nation, and inasmuch as education costs money, there exists an antagonism between the businessman and the teacher that warrants special consideration. Unfortunately, teachers' salaries have been so low in certain areas and situations that some teachers have been unable to live within their incomes. This is a grievous offense to the creditor; there is nothing the businessman hates more than "a dead beat"—one who fails to pay his bills promptly. Obviously, teachers should live within their incomes and pay their bills regularly. But there is another aspect to the problem. If the

businessman wants a teaching profession consisting largely of "timid and unimaginative persons, to whom moderate comfort, a moderate competence, moderate security are the reward for a moderate amount of moderately conscientious drudgery" (President Neilson of Smith College in *Time*, October 9, 1939), continued low salaries will have the desired effect.

Oftentimes, the businessman expresses the view that he pays the bill for education and gets nothing in return. No statement could be more false; the dollar put into education is the most profitable money the businessman invests. As many observers have noted, "the largest and surest market is measured by the cultural standards of the possible purchasers." Certainly, a clientele of illiterates only would bankrupt almost any business institution. Undoubtedly, the desire and the capacity for more and finer consumer goods has been instilled in the school laboratory—not only for refrigerators, sewing machines, and tools of all sorts, but for radios, recording devices, musical instruments, drawing sets, art supplies, and devices for enriching esthetic experiences. There may not be absolute coincidence between the culture of a people and the economic competence of that people, but there is a relationship which, taken in the aggregate, is close. (See Chapter 12.)

The scholar and the businessman have not understood one another. The scholar with his obsession for complete accuracy has little sympathy for the businessman, who wants results. The one line of thought leads to criticism and the other to action. It is apparently difficult for the businessman to take theoretical criticism, even though history has established over and again the precedence of theory over practice; one can hardly name a practice in any realm that has not been altered by new theory. Because our aims and methods differ, we should not be impatient with one another.

The schoolman is rightly shocked at some of the activities of some businessmen. Some talks on "free enterprise" are delivered by persons managing private monopolies, sometimes in the realm of public utilities. Absentee-landlordism has been a blight on many lands far distant from Ireland. The efficiency of business is difficult to believe in view of the high percentage

of bankruptcy, even though it is asserted that many failures in recent years have been due to the demands of labor and the restrictions of government.

On the other hand, schoolmen unanimously applaud some new developments in business. When "the highest price for the longest time" gives way to "the greatest volume at the lowest price," the low-salaried schoolman begins to think that the millennium is just around the corner. When the National Association of Manufacturers passes resolutions favorable to education, as they did in 1941 ("that the administration and conduct of public education is an essential public service and that its reasonable financial support constitutes a necessary claim upon our American society to which other public services of lesser value should be subordinated"), his joy is unbounded. When the President of the United States Chamber of Commerce talks about community responsibility, the differences between the schoolman and the industrialist seem to be about resolved.

The businessmen, no doubt, are also shocked at some of the pronouncements of some educators, particularly those on the "lunatic fringe." There is a vociferous group of so-called educators much given to exhibitionism and consequently much in the public press. However, the unfriendly and irrational critics are rarities in the educational world. It does not take loyalty oaths to keep American teachers in line. In the main, they are the children of the farmers, the artisans, and the small businessmen. The teaching profession to most of them is one step higher up the social ladder. In general, they are a contented class of people.

The Teacher and the School Board ¹

Although in theory the individual teacher may have few contacts with board members, it is necessary that he understand the established working relationships. Otherwise, he may be

¹ For background reading regarding the next few topics, see George D. Strayer, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1938.

carrying directly to board members problems that are the immediate concern of the professional staff.

The school board is the lay group to whom is delegated the responsibility of maintaining the school. Inasmuch as education is a state function, local school boards are, in a sense, state officials; their authority and obligation are imposed upon them by state statute. They are primarily responsible for school policies.

Professional responsibilities are usually delegated by the board to the superintendent of schools and his staff. In fact, most of the policies adopted by the board are the recommendations brought to that board by the superintendent. When the policies are adopted, as advocated by the superintendent or as modified by the board, the superintendent—as the executive officer—is assigned the responsibility of executing them.

The individual board member has no authority unless he has been made the special agent of the board for a special case. When this assignment has been met, he can no longer reflect the will of the board. Board members ordinarily have authority only when they are in session. Consequently, school teachers and officials should not try to commit individual board members on official matters, nor should they rely upon the promises of individual board members.

Inasmuch as professional matters are ordinarily delegated to the staff, the teacher's professional contacts should be limited to staff members. Of course, in an offhand way, a teacher may discuss educational matters with a board member, much as he would with any citizen in the community. Naturally, he must be tactful in what he says; he should not assume the prerogative of the superintendent, whose duty it is to propose educational policies to the board.

Much has been written about the conservative school boards of America. It is true that not all groups within the commonwealth have always been adequately represented, especially the laborers. Also, there is a tendency for businessmen, whose primary concern is the tax burden, to seek undue representation on the board. Nevertheless, in spite of the accusation, there is little evidence that the social composition of the board influences

its decisions to any marked degree. For example, there is little relationship between the vocation or economic status of a board member and his vote on a particular issue. Most of the board members are trying to do their duty as they see it.²

Obviously, teachers have the right to appear before the boards, individually and collectively. Before the board takes action that may prove detrimental to any individual, it should hear his side of the controversy. And it should, and usually does, hear the representatives of the organized teachers' groups on such issues as teachers' salaries, contracts, retirement, tenure, and the like.

The Teacher and the Superintendent

School systems, as contrasted to isolated schools, employ superintendents. In fact, the most important single action of the board is the selection of the superintendent who becomes its chief executive officer. As suggested above, the lay board is usually governed in its action by the recommendations of the superintendent and his staff. Once the program is adopted, it becomes his duty to see that it is carried out.

In order that the relationship between the board of education and the superintendent of schools may be clearly understood by all concerned, many boards adopt rules of procedure. Usually, the board requires its chief executive to nominate all members of the professional staff. In many instances, he is required to nominate all non-professional employees of the school board. A common rule is that he assume full responsibility for the efficiency of the whole staff.

Likewise, professional matters are commonly delegated to the superintendent and his staff of advisers, such as the adoption of textbooks, the purchase of supplies and materials of instruction, the development of curricula and courses of study. It is a recognized rule in school administration that professional discretion is exercised only by those who are professionally

² Roald F. Campbell, *The Social Implications of School Board Legislation*, unpublished doctor's dissertation, Stanford University, 1942.

competent. In practice, all except the major issues are left to the superintendent and his associates.

Thus, the problems that concern the teacher are usually the immediate concerns of the superintendent and his staff. Policies regarding the recruitment, assignment, salaries, tenure, and retirement of teachers ordinarily come to the board through the superintendent. If this were not the case, the board would be under the necessity of treating each case individually. Soon it would be involved in controversies regarding details, such as the building assignments of the different teachers.

Even though the superintendent is charged with the responsibility, the entire staff should, and usually does, take part in the formulation of the educational program. As a general rule, teachers may exercise considerable independence of thought and action in their daily professional duties. Also, they frequently engage in a cooperative process, capitalizing upon the intellectual resources and the experiences of the whole staff. Such participation is an obligation every teacher owes the system. Only through such a joint enterprise can the superintendent be sure of the policies that he carries to the board for their confirmation. And, once these policies are approved, they are as binding upon the staff members as they are upon the superintendent.

The Teacher and the Supervisor

In a school system of any size, the superintendent has the assistance of one or more supervisors, to whom he delegates much of the responsibility for the more technical aspects of education. Usually, supervisors are selected because they have high competence in certain special fields. If their assignments are on specified levels of education—elementary or secondary—they are called general supervisors; and, if in more restricted areas, such as music, art, or penmanship, they are called special supervisors. In either event, the supervisor has mature ideas, based upon successful professional experience and research.

In recent years there has been an almost complete shift in the emphasis in school supervision. Formerly, largely inspec-

tional and dictatorial, supervision is now all that the name implies: "super-"vision, not "snooper-"vision.

An essential quality of a good supervisor is the willingness to work cooperatively with the teachers. More and more, the supervisors assume a role of helpfulness. It is only when the teachers feel entirely free to express their own ideas and equally free to reject the supervisor's ideas that real progress is possible. No longer are feelings of superiority on the part of supervisors and feelings of inferiority on the part of teachers defensible. Of course, the supervisor is the only one who can dispel the older ideas regarding supervisors and initiate the newer concepts.

Supervisors come in direct contact with teachers in many ways. They visit classrooms, observe the teachers and pupils at work, and hold both pre-visitation and post-visitation conferences with the teachers. They hold meetings and group conferences of the teachers immediately concerned. More and more, attendance at these meetings is put on a voluntary basis; if the teacher is getting help, he attends; if not, he discontinues attendance, without reprisals on the part of the supervisor. The supervisor arranges demonstrations by effective teachers of techniques and devices, and helpful inter-visitations among teachers of a given corps or subject. Also, he assumes responsibility for initiating curriculum projects and studies, testing and guidance programs, health programs, and the like.

There is no reason why a teacher should avoid a supervisor. On the contrary, if the supervisor is worthy of his hire, there is every reason why a teacher should seek his aid. As a general rule, supervisors are a progressive group, with time for study and research. Every teacher can profit from supervisory contacts.

The Teacher and the Principal

The teacher's chief responsibility is to the school principal. The supervisor is merely a staff officer giving advisory service to the superintendent, the principals, and the teachers; a principal is a *line* officer directly responsible only to the superintendent or his assistant. When all is said and done, the

principal usually has his own way in his school. If he wishes to be, he can be a little autocrat in his domain. On the other hand, if he recognizes the true nature of his task, he will initiate most cordial relations with the members of his staff.

The principal is directly responsible to the superintendent and board of education for the conduct of the individual school unit. Indirectly, he is responsible to the parents of the school children and the community at large. Actually, he is answerable to the teachers and pupils immediately concerned.

It is the principal's responsibility to adapt the school program to the immediate locality, modifying the general program of the school system as he and his teachers think wise and necessary. Nothing can interfere more certainly with the growth of teachers and the significant education of children than uniformity in organization and procedure in all schools throughout the system.

Likewise, the good principal will protect individual teachers in his school against the deadly policy of uniformity. He should know his teachers well enough to know the conditions under which they work best, and he should be willing to give them a large degree of freedom. "The skillful principal discovers special aptitudes and abilities wherever they exist in his teaching staff and encourages those variations in practice which are the peculiar genius of the individual teacher."³

The Teacher and the Teaching Corps

The success of any school depends in large measure upon the cooperation and teamwork of the teaching corps. The successful teacher will treat other teachers with courtesy and respect; and, to be really successful, he must have their approval and approbation. The interchange of ideas is the lifeblood of the successful school.

The teacher must exercise tact and discretion in his relations with other teachers. According to professional codes, it is unethical to criticize other teachers before teachers, school

³ George D. Strayer, *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1938, p. 71.

patrons, or pupils. If the teacher has a criticism of another teacher that is worthy of serious notice, it should be taken first to the teacher concerned, and only as a last resort, to the administrators concerned. Such occasions are relatively rare.

It is unethical to reflect discredit upon one's immediate predecessor in a position or the previous teachers of the pupils one is teaching. Such criticisms can do no one any good, but can result in considerable harm. Rather, the teacher should defend teachers, all teachers—whether one is acquainted with them or not—against loose criticism on the part of pupils or parents. The teacher should refuse to listen to such tales; obviously, they represent only one side of the controversy. Moreover, some pupils and some parents tell only that which they wish to reveal and keep the real facts covered over.

A wise teacher does not interfere between another teacher and his pupils. It is presumed that every teacher is actuated by professional motives. If not, the administrator is likely to see the fault. If he does not, a teacher may direct his attention to it. Nothing can be gained by telling another teacher how to discipline a pupil or how to mark him in a subject. Unfortunately, much ill feeling may be engendered against the critic by such behavior.

In the interests of the children concerned, the teacher should be most cooperative with substitute teachers. They should be given the benefit of the regular teacher's plans and records. If possible, the regular teacher should hold conferences with them in advance of the anticipated absence or, where possible, call them by telephone in an emergency.

The Teacher and Other School Employees

The same general attitude of courtesy, respect, and consideration that characterizes the behavior of the members of a profession one to another, should characterize a professional person's relations with all persons engaged in any manner in the educational enterprise. Some of these, such as the librarian, may be professionally trained. Others, such as the janitors and

custodians, may be uneducated persons. Nevertheless, all are engaged in a common cause.

The modern school involves the services of many professionally trained persons: doctors, dentists, and nurses, attendance officers, visiting teachers, and school psychologists. A teacher's relations with these individuals must be beyond reproach. Their effectiveness depends upon the support and cooperation of the teacher. Their influence can be nullified or negated by a mere word or gesture from a popular teacher. Also, since their services markedly influence the effectiveness of the teacher, they are to be regarded as teachers' aids.

Even the clerks and the girls on the telephone exchange are human beings, entitled to courtesy, respect, and consideration. Much of the effectiveness of the teacher depends upon the promptness and accuracy of their work. Even on a selfish basis, the wise teacher will treat them kindly.

Conclusion

Unless faced courageously, disunity is inevitable in American life. There was a time when life in the United States was comparatively simple. In an agrarian civilization all people bring to the same problem the same background; they speak the same language and think much the same thoughts. The fragmentation and compartmentalization of American life is the price we have paid for our technological and industrial advancements. Now, no two groups see any problem in exactly the same light; what is good for one group is bad for another. Members of conflicting groups use the same language, but they do not convey the same thoughts. They fail to understand one another because they have not had the same experiences. Moreover, the specialized education so necessary in a technological civilization has failed to give them sufficient vicarious experience so that they can see their mutual problems as well as their interdependence.

Overspecialization has brought this same problem into the realm of American education. The kindergarten teacher is a specialist, the college professor is notorious for his narrower

interests and preparation, and the same tendency exists in the intermediate positions. It is for this reason that courses such as this one are important; all workers in American education should have an over-all view of the entire field and its problems. Along with more and better general insight must go more and better specialization.

There is always the danger that, through misunderstanding and unconscious envy and rationalization, the various specialists will undermine one another. Fortunately, the teacher knows by direct experience something about all of the levels of American education, for he has attended schools at all levels of the American educational ladder. A little cautious effort on his part should enable him to advance the cause of any one level without destroying the faith of the people in the work of the remainder of the institutions of learning.

One fact stands out in bold relief: the individual teacher cannot succeed alone. His success or failure is dependent in large measure upon the work of others, his professional associates, the school patrons, the citizens, the taxpayers. Moreover, his efficiency depends in large measure upon his personal relations with the others concerned. It is for this reason that we have analyzed in some detail many of these relationships: teacher and pupil, teacher and parent, teacher and community, teacher and businessman, teacher and school board, teacher and superintendent, teacher and principal, teacher and the other members of the teaching corps, and teacher and non-professional school employees.

STUDY AIDS

1. What do Dewey and Bode mean by "sickly sentimentality about children"?
2. How should the teacher treat the children?
3. Why must an effective teacher have contacts with the home?
4. Evaluate some of the methods employed in establishing contacts between the school and its patrons.
5. Make a special class report on the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

6. Evaluate the PTA as it functions in the school you know best.
7. Invite the president of the local PTA to address your class.
8. Can a teacher change a community single-handed? Discuss.
9. Is a teacher entitled to all the liberties that other workers have?
10. Why are so many businessmen so antagonistic to schools and education?
11. Make a list of functions a school board should perform.
12. Make a similar list for the superintendent.
13. Specifically, what are the relationships of the superintendent and the school board?
14. What use should a teacher make of a supervisor?
15. Should a teacher initiate supervisory relationships?
16. What is meant by the assertion that a principal is a line officer?
17. Explain: "The interchange of ideas is the lifeblood of the successful school."
18. What attitude should a teacher assume toward his immediate predecessor?
19. Enumerate the functions of special school employees.
20. What is the price of overspecialization in American life?

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PART II

THE AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

CHAPTER 8

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION

We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, *promote the general welfare*, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution of the United States of America—PREAMBLE TO THE CONSTITUTION.

Upon no aspect of the general subject of education has there been greater misunderstanding than that of the relationship of the Federal government to education. Because the Constitution does not contain the word "education" and makes no direct reference to it, the prevalent notion through the years has been that education is not a function of the Federal government. Although the original Constitution made no direct reference to education, it contains no prohibitions against educational activities by the Federal government. The general welfare clause, cited above, certainly *invites*, rather than discourages, Federal interest in education. Actually, as we shall see, the Federal government has been concerned with education from the very outset, and is now deeply involved in educational matters.

The misunderstanding dates from December 30, 1791, when the Tenth Amendment of Constitution was declared to be in force. This amendment states that, "*The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people.*" Down to very recent times, there has been a general feeling that the Tenth Amendment precluded Federal activities in education and assigned education to the states.

Actually, the educational system of the United States is under almost complete control of the several states. Instead of

a single system of education, we have forty-eight separate and distinct systems, each largely autonomous. The picture must be broadened to include the separate school systems of the two territories, Alaska and Hawaii, and those of the more important outlying possessions, such as Puerto Rico. Each governmental unit has its own distinctive school system, unrelated organically to any or all of the others.

Considerable speculation has taken place over the omission of education from the Federal Constitution. The historian reminds us that in those early days in America, education was largely the concern of the family, the church, or private agencies. Moreover, educational practices differed greatly in the American colonies. No doubt a Constitutional provision for education as a national function would have been debated bitterly. As it was, there were enough controversial issues, without inviting another in an area where varying customs prevailed. Anyway, the signers of the Constitution were themselves largely products of the old aristocratic notion that education is a private concern, to be largely restricted to those who can afford to pay for it.

The American educational system, as we know it, has evolved since the Constitution was ratified by nine states in 1789. As Cubberley cleverly observed, at that time Pestalozzi was still unknown, Herbart was a small child, and Froebel, an infant in arms; and, "The work which the French Revolutionary theorists and enthusiasts did for education in France was as yet undone."¹

Also, the framers of our system of government had more immediate and pressing problems than the support of schools. The wilderness had to be cleared, boundary disputes solved, economic practices established, and political order assured.

At least a few of the founding fathers were concerned with educational matters. Madison's journal indicates that at one stage in the drafting of the Constitution, control over an educational system was actually included in a list of enumerated powers to be assigned to the Federal government. Although specific reference to education was later deleted, some of the

¹ E. P. Cubberley, *State School Administration*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927, p. 10.

delegates felt with Hamilton in 1791 that education was covered by "the general welfare clause."

Two of the early presidents, Jefferson in 1806 and Madison in 1817, urged a constitutional amendment granting the Federal government power over education, but neither proposal was accepted. "Jacksonian democracy" and "states rights" spelled the death knell of any further action on the idea.

Recent Supreme Court decisions have indicated that the question of the power of the Federal government over education is not settled. In two of these decisions (the Agricultural Adjustment Act and the Social Security Act decisions), the Court has indicated that any activity of the Federal government which can be shown to be related to the general welfare of the country is clearly constitutional. By inference, education might at some future time be recognized in this category.

Of course, a court decision along the lines indicated would be revolutionary. The Federal government has always been interested in education and has always participated in some phase of it. Up to date, however, it has restricted its educational activity to a few nationally essential and a few very neglected areas of American education.

Land Grants for Common Schools

Federal provisions for the support of education antedated the Constitution, which was ratified in 1789. The Ordinance of 1785, providing for the survey of the Northwest Territory, contains a provision reserving the sixteenth section of every township for the support of public schools. A township, in the system of rectangular surveys, was an area six miles square, consisting of thirty-six sections, each one mile square. Section 16 in every township was set aside as an endowment for the public schools. This action was reaffirmed in the Ordinance of 1787, which provided for the government of the Northwest Territory. This Ordinance contained the following statement: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged."

Some historical skeptics have maintained that the members of the Continental Congress were more interested in selling the land than in aiding education. It is possible that mercenary, as well as philanthropic motives, were involved. It is true that the idea was to sell these lands and create a permanent public fund with the proceeds; only ten days after the adoption of the Ordinance of 1787, Congress sold 1,500,000 acres of this land to the nation's first real-estate promoters, the "Ohio Company of Associates." Be that as it may, Ohio, the first state to be carved out of the Territory in 1802, received either the designated section in every township or the price paid for said section. The majority of the members of Congress no doubt intended that the proceeds from these lands would endow schools and, because of the existence of schools, more settlers would be attracted to the territory.

With some few exceptions, the states admitted to the Union since 1789 have first been organized as territories. These territories were created by separate Acts of Congress. In each instance, Congress has required the maintenance of an educational system in the territory. When the territories became states by Acts of Congress, the state organizations followed the territorial pattern. Thus, by insisting on land-grants to the territories for the support of education, Congress has indirectly fathered the system of education in vogue in most of the states of the Union.

Moreover, as time passed, the newer states received additional sections of land for school purposes. Beginning with the territory of Oregon, 1842, and the state of California, 1850, two sections in every township were designated as school grants. When Utah was admitted, in 1896, the number of sections was increased to four. Several reasons are advanced for the changes in policy; probably the best one is the comparative low value of the lands in Western states, especially in the arid sections. In the case of Utah, the territory had been settled for almost fifty years before it was granted statehood, and the best lands had already been occupied. Oklahoma was given only two sections in each township because no land was granted in the old Indian Territory. Congress voted five million dollars in

gold to be given by the Federal government to Oklahoma as a permanent school fund. Also, the newer states did not participate in the five per cent funds, mentioned below.

In addition to these outright grants of land for school purposes, several of the states have received other land grants, which they have been permitted to use for school purposes. The first of these was grants of certain saline lands in 1802. Swamp-land grants were made in 1849.

In 1818 the Federal government made the first money grants to states, the so-called "five per cent funds." These monies represented that percentage of the net proceeds from the sale of public lands in these states. In some states these funds were used for education, especially those admitted since 1860. Sixteen states were required by Congress to use the money for education, and three others have also used it for that purpose. For example, the Utah State Constitution specifies that money realized from the five per cent fund shall be included in the State School fund, the interest on which only shall be used for school purposes.

Although returns on land grants vary from state to state, not so large a revenue has been realized from school lands as might have been expected. The lands were frequently sold cheaply. Many state administrators took the point of view that it was good husbandry to sell the land at any price in order to get a homesteader upon it whose land and improvements could be taxed. Also, some of the funds derived from the sale of school lands were badly invested and lost to the state forever. As always, in a public trust there were some dishonest officials and some corruption and embezzlement of funds.

Few states have reaped the harvest of rich minerals in the school lands. Under the conservation policy started by President Theodore Roosevelt, the government claimed the mineral-bearing sections, conveying only title to the surface area, and also, exchanging non-mineral sections for mineral sections. The United States Supreme Court in the *Sweet* case, 1918, endorsed the conservation policy that known mineral lands were reserved from school grants. Later the United States Land Office developed the rule known as "geological inference," by

which the responsibility was placed upon the state to prove that land was not mineral bearing. Under this ruling the Western states were robbed of much of their valuable school lands. In 1927, President Calvin Coolidge signed a bill designed to guarantee to the states the title to the mineral-bearing school lands. This Act provides specifically that "mineral sections of land for support of common schools are extended to embrace numbered school sections mineral in character." Under this bill many states, particularly the Western states, are assured the returns from lands that prove to be mineral in character. However, the law does not restore to the state mineral lands claimed by the government under the rule of geological inference. In spite of these conditions, an appreciable sum is realized from school land grants in most states every year, and some few of the older states have reaped great returns on mineral lands developed before the Federal government intervened.

Closely related to the subject of land grants is the Federal policy regarding forest reserves. In 1908 Congress provided that 25 per cent of all money received from each forest reserve during any fiscal year shall be paid to the state or territory in which the reserve was located, "to be expended as the state or territorial legislature may prescribe for the benefit of the public schools and the public roads of the county or counties in which the forest reserve is situated." In a sense this grant compensates the states where there are forest reserves for the large areas of lands that cannot be taxed. Many states divide the money between the schools and roads. Also, the proceeds from the so-called "leasing act" are commonly regarded as school funds.

The above account clearly indicates an interest in, and concern for, education on the part of Congress. Also, in view of what will be said later about the need for additional Federal aid for education, it is to be noted that Congress for the most part did not define the kind of education to be given with the funds produced by these grants, nor did it attempt in any way to influence the curriculum, methods, or procedures in the schools supported in part from these funds.

Land-Grant Colleges

Since Civil War days Congress has been making grants for the support of colleges emphasizing vocational, agricultural, and allied subjects. It is said that President Abraham Lincoln signed the Morrill Act of 1862, establishing land-grant colleges, because of one feature of the bill, requiring compulsory military drill of all male students. Lincoln needed soldiers in the Northern Army; actually, at that date, the South was winning the war. This Act gave to each state thirty thousand acres of land for each senator and representative then in Congress or at the time the state was admitted to the Union. The proceeds from the sale of these lands were to be used for "the endowment, maintenance, and support of at least one college where the leading object shall be, without excluding other scientific and classical studies and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanical arts. Also, by statute, these institutions were "to promote the liberal and practical education of the industrial classes in the several pursuits and professions in life."

Every state in the Union has benefited from this fund. At the present writing there are sixty-nine land-grant colleges, one in each state except Massachusetts, where there are two, one in Puerto Rico, one in Hawaii, one in Alaska, and seventeen additional colleges in the Southern states, for Negro students. Twenty-four land grant colleges in Northern and Western states are separate state institutions, bearing such names as state college, college of agriculture and mechanical arts, agricultural college, etc. In twenty-eight states, the state university is the land grant institution, offering courses in agriculture, engineering, and home economics as part of the work of the institution. The remaining seventeen colleges are institutions of higher learning for Negroes.

It is to be noted that Congress did not provide for any continuing control over these institutions, but did state which subjects should be emphasized. Operated largely under state auspices, these schools have rendered a great social and economic service to this country.

The Federal government initiated the policy of money grants for education in its early gifts to these colleges. In 1887 the Hatch Act was passed, providing an annual cash subsidy of \$15,000 for the establishing of an experiment station in connection with each land grant college of agriculture and mechanical arts. However, it should be noted that the Act specified that the money was to be derived from the sale of lands. After the disappearance of the vast public domain, this provision was omitted from the later acts, to be described. The Adams Act of 1906 increased the amount granted to \$30,000 per institution. In 1890, through the second Morrill Act, every college was granted \$15,000 a year for more complete endowment and maintenance. This amount was increased \$1,000 per year until each college received \$25,000. In 1907, by the Nelson Amendment, the cash subsidy was increased \$5,000 per year, until each college was receiving \$50,000 per year. In 1925, the Purnell Act was passed, increasing the endowments of each experiment station at the rate of \$10,000 per year until each college was guaranteed an annual grant of \$90,000 after 1930. The Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935 made still further increases. Instead of giving the same allotment to each state it changed the basis of distribution, providing that 60 per cent of the grant for experiment stations was to be distributed to the states according to their rural population, and 40 per cent was to be granted for research conducted by agencies designated by the Secretary of the Department of Agriculture.

The original purpose of the agricultural experiment stations was to aid in acquiring and diffusing among the rural population useful information on agricultural subjects, and to promote scientific investigations and experiments regarding the principles and applications of the agricultural sciences. Later legislation has broadened the scope of the investigations to include the manufacture, preparation, use, distribution, and marketing of agricultural products, and such economic and sociological studies as have for their purpose the improvement of rural life and rural homes. Under these grants much research has been done in the fields of agriculture and home economics and much improvement has been noted in country living conditions.

It is to be noted that, when land grants were no longer possible, Congress granted *money* to the land-grant colleges. An expectation of help from the Federal government for the maintenance of these colleges had been developed that could no longer be satisfied by grants of land. In connection with our later discussion of Federal aid for education, it is important to note that Federal money grants for education have a long history. Moreover, the president, faculty, or alumni of a land-grant-money-grant college have not complained much about Federal interference with their plans, although there no doubt have been some discomforts attached to these gifts.

Money Grants for Vocational Education

Within recent decades a number of new policies in Federal relations to education have been introduced. Money grants, some of which found their way into educational channels, date from the Surplus Revenue Act of 1837 and the money grants to land-grant colleges, reviewed above. Beginning with the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, Congress started appropriating money for vocational education on condition that the state match the funds from Federal sources with like amounts from state sources.

The Smith-Lever Act undertook to provide for cooperative extension work in agriculture and home economics for persons not attending land-grant colleges. This Act made an appropriation of \$10,000 to each state whose legislature assented to the provisions of the Act, involving the matching principle, and pro-rated \$600,000 the following year among the states on the basis of the rural population. These amounts were increased annually by \$500,000 per year for seven years and were continued thereafter at \$4,100,000 annually. This money was used to employ county agricultural agents, home demonstrators, and 4-H Club leaders in the states accepting the "fifty-fifty" matching principle. The Capper-Ketcham Act of 1928 and the Bankhead-Jones Act of 1935, both authorized further appropriations for the cooperative extension service, and at various times other appropriations for the service have also been included in appropriation acts.

The Smith-Lever extension workers have influenced farmers, housewives, and children in rural areas. They have furnished the leadership for rural America, telling the farmer how to raise his crops, assisting him in improving his marketing procedures, helping his wife preserve fruits and vegetables for home use, giving the children joy in their share in the activities of the farm and home. The field-demonstration, publication, assembly and individual-conference techniques, here first used extensively, are now permeating all divisions of American education.

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 was the first legislation designed specifically to provide vocational education of below college grade. The Federal stimulus to education here passed from the college level to that of the public schools. The Act provided that the states participating in the Act shall match dollar for dollar all Federal money received and that the Federal money shall be paid to the states only as reimbursements for money already spent by the states for work approved by the Federal authorities. It is specified that the money shall be spent for education in agriculture, home economics, and trades and industries, and for the training of teachers of these subjects. Starting with an initial appropriation of \$1,700,000, by 1939 the annual appropriation was \$7,367,000.

The Smith-Hughes Act created the Federal Board of Vocational Education with power to cooperate with state boards for vocational education in the administration of the Act. It appropriated \$200,000 to this Board annually, for the purpose of making or cooperating in making studies, investigations, and reports on vocational education and for the administration of the Act. Moreover, the Act included extensive prescriptions regarding the nature of the program.

Subsequently, the George-Reed Act of 1929, the George-Ellzey Act of 1934, and the George-Deen Act of 1936 increased the appropriations for vocational education. In 1939-40 the appropriation was \$22,335,000, of which \$21,785,000 was for distribution to the states, and \$550,000 for administration of the Federal agencies. The distribution of money to states is on the basis of populations, with guaranteed minimums to each

state. The Smith-Hughes and the George-Deen Acts and their appropriations are still in effect.

The George-Deen Act of 1936 extended the Federal policy of subsidizing vocational education. It provided for Federal aid for education in agricultural, home economics, trade, and industrial subjects as did the Smith-Hughes Act and added distributive occupational subjects and "public and other service occupations." (Distributive occupations include store owners, managers, and executives, salespeople, buyers, etc.) Also, it reduced the requirements for matching of Federal funds, made a \$350,000 appropriation directly to the U. S. Office of Education, and extended the Act to include the territories of Alaska and Hawaii, the Island of Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia.

The Federal government is engaged in a cooperative educational program of less than college grade, designed to meet the needs of persons over 14 years of age who have entered, or are preparing to enter upon, the work of the farm, the home, trades and industries, business, and public service occupations. Federal support is given to vocational classes in all-day schools, part-time schools, and evening schools. All-day schools give "preparatory" courses, preparing boys and girls regularly enrolled for full-time school attendance to enter the fields of service enumerated above. Part-time schools serve the needs of youth who have entered upon employment and who come back to school for part-time enrollment in classes during their regular working hours. Evening schools are organized to give workers over 16 years of age training supplemental to their daily employment; the training is designed to meet the vocational needs of workers of all ages through short-unit intensive instruction.

Closely allied to the Federal provisions for vocational education is the program of vocational rehabilitation of the physically handicapped. In 1918, by the Smith-Sears Act, the government provided for the rehabilitation of persons disabled in military service in World War I and in 1920 this program was extended by the Smith-Bankhead Act to include "persons disabled in industry, or otherwise." This is also a matching fund, involv-

ing a total annual Federal appropriation at this writing of around \$2,000,000. Allotments are made to the states on the basis of total population, with a minimum of \$10,000 to each state. The Social Security Act of 1935 appropriated another \$2,000,000 annually for the vocational rehabilitation of the physically disabled. Although not carried on to any considerable extent through the public school system, vocational rehabilitation is a public educational program directed by the state boards of vocational education in the respective states.

It is now evident that the "general welfare" clause has been used to justify Federal activities in those aspects of education otherwise neglected and deemed essential to our common welfare.

Education for National Defense

Another clause of the preamble to the Constitution provides for "common defense." At no time has there been a hesitancy on the part of Congress in establishing educational institutions to contribute to national defense. The first educational institution authorized by Congress was the United States Military Academy, established at West Point in 1802. A similar school was established at Annapolis in 1845, the United States Naval Academy. For many generations these schools have educated officers for our armed forces. We have already noted that the land-grant colleges were established for the express purpose of giving instruction in military tactics.

Our experiences in World War I taught us the necessity of an Officers' Reserve Corps. Since 1920 reserve officers have been trained in both the secondary and higher schools of the country. All readers are familiar with the R.O.T.C., as it is commonly known. This program is under the direction of the War Department, the Adjutant General handling the Administration, and the General Staff handling the training. Standard courses of study are prescribed by the Secretary of War and the President is authorized to detail officers and enlisted men of the Army for duty at the educational institutions and to furnish the necessary supplies, equipment, and uniforms. Except for land-grant colleges and universities, this is a voluntary

program on the part of the high schools and institutions of higher learning. Civilian heads of these institutions exercise much the same control over the department of military science and tactics that they do over the other departments of the school. Before World War II about four hundred schools cooperated in this program each year, training about 150,000 men annually and graduating over 6,000 commissioned officers.

The Naval Officers Training Corps was authorized in 1925. The graduates were made eligible for appointment as Naval Reserve Officers or as Marine Corps officers. Its purpose is similar to the Army R.O.T.C. : systematic instruction and training in naval subjects essential to national defense. Although less than a dozen units were in operation in the colleges of the land before World War II, since the war R.O.T.C. units are being established in several institutions of higher learning.

Here we encounter a new form of Federal aid for education. It is to be noted that the educational institutions cooperating in this enterprise are receiving Federal aid, not land or money, but in personnel, equipment, and other facilities for conducting instruction in military or naval science and tactics. The courses of study are drawn up in Washington, and the entire program is under strict Federal supervision and control.

Educational Activities as Relief Measures

The administration of President Franklin D. Roosevelt was confronted, as no previous administration had been, with the "general welfare" of a prostrate people. When the bottom dropped out of the stock market in 1929 the people were soon in a state of mind to try anything that promised even remotely to alleviate their plight.

Many of the New Deal experiments involved education. The first problem tackled by the Roosevelt administration was relief for unemployment. It occurred to someone that education was in an advantageous position; education could occupy the time of the unemployed masses and at the same time employ the services of otherwise unemployed teachers.

A detailed treatment of the numerous agencies combining relief and education is beyond the scope of this chapter. In the opinion of many authorities, it is to be hoped that most of these agencies are buried forever, because of the type of Federal control of education they introduced. We shall deal briefly with two of these agencies—the CCC (Civilian Conservation Corps) and the NYA (National Youth Administration)—so vexing to some educators, and at the same time the salvation of the youth of the nation.²

Civilian Conservation Corps

On March 31, 1933, Congress passed the Act creating the CCC, as it soon became known. This Act, “for the relief of unemployment through the performance of useful public work, and for other purposes,” was enacted “for the purpose of relieving the acute condition of widespread distress and unemployment now existing in the United States, and in order to provide for the restoration of the country’s depleted natural resources and the advancement of an orderly program of useful public works.”

Young men between the ages of seventeen and twenty-three years were shipped from their homes, mainly in the larger cities, into the more remote areas of the country, where they were housed in temporary camps and furnished with the necessary subsistence, clothing, medical attendance, and hospitalization. Here the victims of the depression ate good food, followed a regular schedule of activities, and performed much valuable labor—planting forest trees, building trails, constructing bridges, building dams, treating areas for erosion control. For their labors these young men received \$30 per month, board, clothing, living quarters, medical care, and the opportunity to earn. Of this amount, each enrollee sent a minimum of \$22 per month to needy dependents or deposited this amount with the camp fiscal officer, to be returned to him when he left the camp.

² See *Federal Activities in Education*, Educational Policies Commission (NEA), July, 1939, Ch. VI.

By 1937 the CCC included an educational program. The Act of 1937 stated "at least ten hours per week may be devoted to general educational and vocational training." To meet the needs of boys who had never attended school up to and including college graduates, several types of educational activities were conducted in each camp. Some men were enabled to finish the work of the elementary school, some received instruction in secondary-school subjects, and others received teacher-training, foreman-training, and leadership-training. Much of the training was on the job, the camp project or projects. Considerable vocational instruction was given in leisure time—commercial courses, building trades, electrical work, auto mechanics, and agriculture. Instruction was given also in arts and crafts, dramatics, and music. All were taught personal hygiene, safety, first aid, and citizenship. Considerable time was spent in counseling and guidance—personal, social, educational, and vocational. In many instances the local high schools, near-by colleges and universities, and state departments of education cooperated in instructing the young men.

Prior to 1939, each camp was administered by an officer of the Army Officers' Reserve Corps, the Naval Reserve, the Marine Corps Reserve, or a Coast Guard warrant officer. Civilians were substituted after that date, due to the national defense activities of the officers of the armed forces.

The camp educational advisers were civilians appointed by the U. S. Office of Education. Although these advisers were college graduates, they were not necessarily professional educators.

The CCC lasted until the war activities absorbed the youth of the nation. Its demise was due in large measure to the activities of the National Policies Commission and the professional educators, who were resentful and fearful of a new parallel school system developing under Federal control. In April, 1939, while in its last stages, it was included in the Federal Security Agency, along with the NYA, the U. S. Office of Education, the U. S. Public Health Service, the Social Security Board, and other miscellaneous agencies.

The National Youth Administration

The NYA, established by an Executive Order of President Franklin D. Roosevelt June 26, 1935, was intended to initiate and administer a program of approved projects which should provide relief, work relief, and employment for persons between the ages of sixteen and twenty-five who were no longer in regular full-time attendance at a school and who were not regularly engaged in remunerative employment. In accordance with this objective, the NYA carried on a student aid program, a work-projects program, and a guidance and placement program.

Student aid provided part-time employment for needy students to enable them to continue their education, including pupils in elementary and high schools, undergraduate students in college, and graduate students. Theoretically, aid could not be given to youth to displace workers paid from other sources. Elementary or high school pupils earned a maximum of \$6 per month; a college student, \$20; a graduate student, \$40; the elementary or high school student could work a maximum of twenty hours per week, the college and graduate students thirty hours per week during the regular term. The work had to be practical and useful and within the abilities and major interests of the youth receiving the aid, involving clerical, construction, department service, library work, duplication, grounds and building maintenance, research and surveys, home economics, art, laboratory assistance, recreation, and miscellaneous jobs. Pupils and students of both private and public schools participated.

Work projects were designed for young men and women eighteen to twenty-four years of age. NYA provided part-time employment on work projects of youth from relief families and was intended to give the young people work experience as well as to benefit the communities in which they lived. Work was restricted to eight hours per day, forty per week, and seventy per month. Without special authorization, no relief youth was permitted to earn more than \$25 per month. Most of the projects were sponsored by public or nonprofit-making agencies

in cooperation with the NYA. Construction work included highways, public buildings, recreational facilities, and conservation projects. In other classifications were nursery schools, clerical and stenographic work, school lunches, library service, serving, museum work, and many other types of work. Although most youth on NYA work projects lived at home, toward the last an increasing number were housed in NYA residences at land-grant colleges, teachers colleges, vocational schools, experiment stations, conservation areas, and hospitals.

Vocational guidance and placement was carried on as a part of the work-projects program. The NYA sponsored occupational and industrial studies and conducted a junior placement program.

The NYA had its own Federal, state, and local administrative organizations, which determined policies and procedures and executed the programs. Every state, the District of Columbia, and New York City had separate offices. Each state was divided into districts, each with its supervisor responsible to the state administrator. Student aid was largely administered through state and college officials. State, county, and community councils commonly functioned, sponsoring projects, obtaining contributions, and supporting programs.

In its last days the NYA, likewise, was placed under the Federal Security Agency, July 1, 1939. The NYA lasted until preparations for World War II supplied labor for every willing worker in America. Even during the national defense period that preceded the War, the leaders were endeavoring to enlist the youth of the nation, in competition with other Federal agencies endeavoring to recruit workers for the shipyards, military and naval depots, arsenals, and essential war industries. Some of its sponsors were loath to give it up even then, preferring to retain a skeleton organization to meet the uncertainties of the future.

There is neither time nor space to discuss the other Federal agencies concerned with education during this critical era, the Reconstruction Finance Corporation (RFC), the Federal Emergency Relief Administration (WPA), Public Works Administration (PWA), etc.

The Problem of the Federal Government and Education

The CCC and the NYA poised a real issue in American education: "When educational needs arise which affect the national welfare, cut across the bounds of states, and appear to be beyond the unaided powers of states to meet, the Federal government should operate and control educational programs intended to meet these needs."

This was the philosophy of the CCC and the NYA.

The Federal government should undertake to meet these needs "by working through the state-and-local educational systems, strengthening these established agencies, supplying leadership and financial aid, but not exercising control over the processes of education."³

This was the position of the Educational Policies Commission, the National Educational Association, and most professional educators.

Throughout the history of the nation down to 1933, the Federal government followed the second alternative. As the Educational Policies Commission noted: "It (the Federal government) worked through the established state-and-local agencies of education, supplied financial aid, sought to give leadership, yet refrained from control."⁴ On September 14, 1941, the Educational Policies Commission proposed that,

The State and local agencies of education should have full authority and responsibility for the control and operation of all public education, including vocational training. The responsibilities of schools should extend to all youth and should embrace all the services required to meet the educational needs of youth including the need to be prepared for and placed in an occupation with reasonable possibilities for personal satisfaction and social usefulness.

The Federal government should be responsible for promoting the national interest in education by stimulating, strengthening, and supporting the state-and-local agencies. It should supply competent leadership and planning research, experimentation, and demonstration on a

³ *The Civilian Conservation Corps, The National Youth Administration, and the Public Schools*, Educational Policies Commission (NEA), October, 1941, p. 3.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 3.

national or regional scale, but should not itself operate educational programs. It should provide funds for aid to the state-and-local agencies, in order to equalize the abilities of states to support the educational program which is needed.

In time of general unemployment, the Federal government should perform another service for youth. It should take the lead in providing employment on public works programs for all competent workers who cannot be placed in private employment, including young people who have completed their vocational education. The purpose of such employment should be the production of useful goods or services—not relief, and not training.⁵

The professional educators were fearful that the CCC and the NYA would lead to a permanent administrative authority and that “under this new type of organization, two systems of education may develop in the United States—one, the state and local administration responsible for those who continue in school until they are employed; and the other, a national system of education responsible for youth and for adults who are no longer enrolled in the recognized units of the public school system.”⁶ It was felt by the schoolmen that, “In a democratic society, particularly in our own, which consists of a federation of states covering a wide geographic territory, it is important to resist any centralization of control in education.”⁷

As leaders of the NYA movement noted,

It should be borne in mind that in the case of all these federal emergency programs the primary objective has been relief. Education has been secondary or incidental. Furthermore, it must also be remembered that practically all of these programs were instituted with unprecedented haste. One can scarcely stop long to argue about the niceties of jurisdiction when people are starving. A result has been that the Federal government has been drawn into an extensive program of participation in education without any close organic or directive relationship, in most instances, to the long existing state and local school systems.⁸

⁵ *Ibid.*, pp. 4-5.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 25.

⁷ *Loc. cit.*

⁸ John Dale Russell and Charles H. Judd, *The American Educational System*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940, p. 88.

The United States Office of Education

In keeping with the common notion of the implications of the Tenth Amendment, the Federal government almost ignored education until 1867. That year the Honorable James A. Garfield, at the instance of the National Association of State and City Superintendents, sponsored a bill creating a department of education. The official act of Congress passed and signed by President Andrew Johnson in 1867, stipulated:

That there shall be established at the city of Washington, a department of education for the purpose of collecting such statistics and facts as shall show the condition and progress of education in the several States and Territories, and of diffusing such information respecting the organization and management of schools and school systems, and methods of teaching, as shall aid the people of the United States in the establishment and maintenance of efficient school systems, and otherwise promote the cause of education throughout the country.

Although the Department of Education became an Office of Education in the Department of the Interior two years later, 1869, and a Bureau of Education in 1870, a rereading of the above paragraph will convince anyone that Americans had become convinced that education was a national concern. In 1929, the title Office of Education was restored. There was considerable agitation for the restoration of the Department of Education until the Office of Education was transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Federal Security Agency on June 30, 1940.

According to an official publication:

The Office of Education is a combination research organization and publishing house. As a research organization it collects statistics and facts which permit each state or community to compare its educational achievements and problems to those of any other state or community. It is a national clearing house of educational information. Also the office conducts educational surveys and supplies educational consultant service when requested by states, cities, or institutions.

The Office of Education diffuses information in four ways, through (1) its many publications, (2) conferences called by the Commissioner of Education, (3) letters answering inquiries, and (4) addresses by

staff members before educational meetings. From the office a constant stream of information flows to all parts of our Nation and other nations. Its bulletins (an average of 30 per year) have from 32 to 2,000 pages; its Biennial Survey of Education is a standard reference; its Educational Directory annually lists 15,000 names of United States schools and school officials.

The Office of Education conducts no propaganda for any new or old idea in education, but it makes known the findings of its research by distributing publications and by holding conferences. As regional meetings are called by the Commissioner the men and women who administer our Nation's schools re-examine their problems in light of the new information submitted by the Office of Education.⁹

Many illustrious names are associated with the history of the Office of Education. Henry Barnard, who first declared for a Federal office of education in 1838, very fittingly became the first United States Commissioner of Education. He had previously served as state superintendent of schools in both Rhode Island and Connecticut. His successors in order, are:

John Eaton (1870-1886), N. H. R. Dawson (1886-1889), William T. Harris (1889-1906), Elmer E. Brown (1906-1911), Philander P. Claxton (1911-1921), John J. Tigert (1921-1928), William J. Cooper (1929-1933), George F. Zook (1933-1934), John W. Studebaker (1934 —).

Although the appointment as U. S. Commissioner of Education is popularly regarded as a political appointment, no president has deliberately played politics with this great office. As can be seen from the above dates, some commissioners have survived the administrations of presidents nominated by two different political parties. The Commissioner is appointed by the President of the United States, with the consent of the Senate, for an indefinite term.

Moreover, most of the men who have occupied this great office have done so at a personal sacrifice. Many states pay higher salaries to their chief state school official than the Commissioner receives, as do the major cities, and the presidents of the larger universities receive far higher remuneration. At

⁹ "The Office of Education," Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1931.

this writing, ten men have held the office for almost eighty years under seventeen presidents.

As the people of the Nation have sensed, more and more, the role of education in public well-being, the Office of Education has assumed additional duties almost every year. For example, much of the 1944 report is devoted to activities of staff members incidental to the World War II and the post-war period; emergency war training; visual aids for war training; FM radio service; post-war planning; the school lunch; farm labor training; farm youth training; student war loans; Inter-American education; school services in war areas; school transportation in wartime; salvage drives; surplus property, etc. During this period the official Office publication, *School Life*, was known as *Education for Victory*.¹⁰

Part II of 1944 report is devoted to a plan of organization to improve the service of the U. S. Office of Education, the basic proposition being:

The U. S. Office of Education should be strengthened and reorganized in order that it may be prepared to do its indispensable part in giving national leadership and assistance to the educational systems and institutions of the several states and their local communities in meeting the long-term educational demands of the post-war period.¹¹

The Commissioner complained that the Office "is still largely based on traditional groupings of personnel and functions." He then proposed eight major divisions: (1) *school administration*—including specialists for state schools, city schools, county and rural schools, pupil transportation, school finance and taxation, school housing and business administration; (2) *auxiliary services*—including specialists in such fields as the library, health and physical education, school-community relations, school lunchroom management, educational use of radio, visual education, and services to the blind; (3) *central office services*—including statisticians, editors, specialists in graphic service, etc.; (4) *international educational relations*—including specialists on the American Republics, the European countries, the

¹⁰ *Annual Report of the U. S. Office of Education*, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 67.

British Empire, and Near and Far Eastern countries; (5) *elementary education*—including specialists in Nursery-Kindergarten, teacher-training, instructional problems, exceptional children and youth; (6) *secondary education*—including specialists in administration, tests and measurements, teacher-training, instructional problems and fields; (7) *vocational education*—including specialists in agricultural education, industrial education, home economics education, business education, occupational information and guidance; and (8) *higher education*—including specialists in organization, administration, finance, student personnel, faculty personnel, various areas of general and semi-professional programs, areas of professional schools, the college of arts and sciences and various subject specialists.

In the fiscal year 1945, the U. S. Commissioner announced,

. . . the aforementioned plan was widely and thoughtfully discussed in educational circles and in the Congress. A relatively small increase in appropriations was provided to the Office of Education with which to begin the proposed improvement in its services. Early in the fiscal year 1946, these improvements were begun by regrouping the staff and functions of the office in eight operating divisions.¹²

As the Commissioner envisions the U. S. Office of Education, it should be prepared to carry the following services:

1. The collection of information with respect to education in the States and in other countries, so as to make possible intelligent comparisons and conclusions regarding the efficiency of educational programs.

2. The formulation and recommendation of minimum educational standards which ought to be made to prevail in the schools and colleges of all the States and the preparation of suggested proposals and plans for improving various educational practices, arrived at by cooperative planning among private and public educational organizations and lay groups, such recommendations and proposals to be influential only if their merit and appropriateness warrant voluntary acceptance by the States and institutions.

¹² *Annual Report* of the Federal Security Agency, Section Two, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1945.

3. The provision of services of a national character that cannot well be undertaken by single States acting alone, e.g.—the collection, interpretation, and dissemination of national statistics, the conduct of national and other important surveys, the convening of conferences of national significance.

4. Pointing out desirable educational ends and procedures, evaluating educational trends and giving educational advice and discriminating praise.

5. The offering of consultative services to States, school systems, and higher educational institutions on problems of reorganization, finance, administration and curriculum.

6. The coordination of government activities relating to education through schools and colleges.¹³

Areas Under Special Federal Jurisdiction

The Federal government is solely responsible for the education of children living in the District of Columbia (Washington, D.C.); the territories of Hawaii and Alaska; the island possessions, such as Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and American Samoa; the Panamá Canal Zone; and the Federal reservations, including national parks, national forests, and military reservations. Also, the Federal government assumes full responsibility for the education of Indians in the United States and Alaska (the Aleuts). The educational services in these various areas differ markedly. There is no unified policy and many inequalities; much confusion exists. Actually, the total area of the territories and dependencies (700,000 square miles) is equal to nearly one-fourth of that of the continental United States, and the inhabitants total four millions.

Other Federal Activities in Education

Every department of the Federal government is engaged in training its own personnel or other educational activities. Mention has already been made of the United States Military Academy at West Point. The War Department also maintains

¹³ *Annual Report* of the U. S. Office of Education for the Fiscal Year, 1944, p. 75.

the Army War College, the Army Industrial College, special service schools, the R.O.T.C. in high schools and colleges, etc. In addition to the United States Naval Academy, previously mentioned, the Navy Department maintains a Naval War College, the N.R.O.T.C. in universities, and special service schools.

One of the greatest graduate institutions in America is maintained by the Department of Agriculture for the voluntary improvement of its employees and, incidentally, the employees of other departments. The credits of the Graduate School of the Department of Agriculture are acceptable at practically all the better graduate schools of the country, although it confers no degrees. The Department of Agriculture Extension Service, its Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and its Bureau of Home Economics are other educational activities.

The Bureau of Standards of the Department of the Treasury also offers courses in its School of Instruction, as does the Training Division of the Bureau of Internal Revenue, for the improvement of the services of the employees.

The Post Office Department, likewise, maintains a School of Instruction for postal inspectors. Unquestionably the franking privileges of the members of Congress and Federal officers is an educational venture of great magnitude.

The Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor is deserving of special mention for its investigations of child labor, child mortality, etc.

The Department of Justice is now stressing prison education in the Federal penitentiaries. Also, the Federal Bureau of Investigation prides itself on its famous F.B.I. Academy.

As we saw in earlier chapters, the Bureau of Census is cognizant of the educational implications of the Federal census taken each decade.

The Department of State operates the Foreign Service Officers' Training School and postgraduate training for junior officers.

The Office of Indian Affairs and the National Park Service are under the Department of the Interior. Many educational agencies, heretofore under this department, are now in the

Federal Security Agency: Howard University, Freedman's Hospital, St. Elizabeth's Hospital, etc.

Future Federal Relations to Education

From the above recital we have learned that, contrary to the prevailing notion of laymen, the Federal government is deeply concerned with education. The depth of this concern is realized when one studies the land grants for common school, land grants for colleges, money grants for vocational education, and, more especially, when one notes how the "general welfare" clause was involved in the cause of education during the depression years. Since 1867 we have had a national agency directly concerned with education in the United States.

The bugaboo has always been Federal control of education. However, the contention that Federal participation in education means Federal control is not borne out by the facts. In all the Federal grants for education, it is safe to say, the largest possible degree of control consistent with good public policy has been delegated to the states.

Nevertheless, school authorities are agreed that in the future as in the past, we must safeguard local and state control of education. It is unlikely that Congress will ever pass a Federal-aid bill that gives the Federal government any direct control over education. We are afraid of bureaucracy; we are fearful of the meddlings of political demagogues and shysters; we are resentful of indoctrination in any shape or form.

The findings of two great deliberate bodies, appointed by two presidents, point in this direction. In 1929 President Herbert Hoover appointed a National Advisory Committee on Education, consisting of fifty persons, most of whom were educators. The report published in 1931 states:

It is particularly unwise to centralize in the federal government the power of determining the social purposes to be served by educational institutions or of establishing the techniques of educational procedure. . . . A system of decentralized school management is best adapted to a democratic nation of wide geographic expanse and varied economic, social, and other human conditions. . . . Education is of too intimate

concern to the American parents to be brought under a far-removed civil administration which tends toward relative inflexibility.¹⁴

In 1936 President Franklin D. Roosevelt appointed an Advisory Committee on Education, consisting of twenty-two persons representing labor, industry, agriculture, home economics, education, and other social groups. Their report, published in 1938, states:

Local controls in government, and especially in education, have values that we should do our utmost to retain. . . . Despite its obvious inefficiencies and limitations, local freedom helps to assure experimentation, healthy rivalry between localities, popular interest in public questions, and that diversity of form and method which tends to prevent sudden disruption of the social order. . . . In order that local initiative and responsibility may be maintained, all federal action should reserve explicitly to state and local auspices the general administration of schools, control over the processes of education, and the determination of the best uses of the allotments of federal funds within the types of expenditure for which federal funds may be made available. The Federal government should in no case attempt to control the curriculum of the schools or the methods of teaching to be employed in them. . . . Federal grants should be made to build up and strengthen existing educational agencies and institutions insofar as they are able to serve important needs, and not to establish competing agencies and institutions.¹⁵

Our concern for safeguarding state-and-local control of education should not blind us to the fact that the nation, as well as the states and localities, has a vital stake in education. "The harmful results of educational deficiencies cannot be quarantined within state boundaries." Lack of education or inadequate education in any state may affect adversely the health, the exercise of suffrage, and the economic well-being of all states. Many educational problems are nation-wide problems, juvenile delinquency, what to do with unemployed youth, an effective vocational education program. National defense

¹⁴ The National Advisory Committee on Education, *Federal Relations to Education*, Part I, "Committee Findings and Recommendations," Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1931, p. 39.

¹⁵ The Advisory Committee on Education, *Report of the Committee*, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1938, pp. 40-43.

is dependent on education, both for technical knowledge and the elements of patriotism so essential in a democracy.

Two things the Federal government should do: (1) it should furnish educational leadership through its Office of Education, along the lines discussed above, and (2) it should furnish financial aid to equalize educational opportunity. This we shall discuss in a later chapter. These functions are not only in keeping with the American traditions; they are essential to the well-being of the American commonwealth.

The Necessity for Federal Action

If we concede that the educational status of the people is a matter of concern in our democracy, then the time for federal action has arrived. Figure 3 (page 278), shows the average years of schooling attained by the population in each state, when the population is arranged into eight groups according to age, as revealed in the 1940 Federal census.¹⁶

In Chapter 12 we shall have occasion to discuss the problem of financing education in the various states. For the time being, one assertion must suffice: the states that are making the greatest financial effort to support education are the states making the lowest per capita expenditures. In other words, the inequalities existing amongst the states are so great that even a herculean effort on the part of a poor state leaves its children educationally handicapped when compared with the children of richer states where low effort assures an amount of money adequate to finance a good school system. These conditions are revealed in Figure 2 (page 274), which should be studied in connection with Figure 3.

As time marches on, we may expect more and more Federal aid for American education. The citizens of America will not tolerate much longer the inequalities in education that exist in the forty-eight states. The time may come when it will be necessary to invoke the "general welfare" clause in the cause of better education for all citizens of the United States. When

¹⁶ National Education Assn., Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, *Extent of Schooling of the American People*, Washington, D. C., 1944, p. 3.

that time comes, the courts will be responsive. Meanwhile, every state should do its duty to its children, assuring them an adequate education and, thereby enabling them to cope with the multitudinous tasks confronting the citizens of a twentieth-century democracy.

STUDY AIDS

1. Why was the "general welfare" clause written into the Preamble to the Constitution?
2. In your opinion, does the "general welfare" clause include education?
3. How much has your state benefited from Federal land-grants for common schools?
4. How did the conservation policies of President Theodore Roosevelt modify land grants?
5. Why should state schools receive a portion of the Forest Reserve incomes?
6. What is the origin of land grants to colleges?
7. Prepare a special report on the land-grant college in your state. Where is it located? What is its function? How is it supported?
8. Do you approve of the principle behind the "matching" funds for vocational education?
9. Prepare a special report on the Smith-Lever Act. The officials at the nearest land-grant college can furnish up-to-date information.
10. Prepare a special report on the Smith-Hughes Act and its operation in your state. The officials in your state school office can be a great assistance to you.
11. Prepare a special report on the George-Deen Act and its operation in your state. Consult the officials in your state school office for up-to-date information.
12. Prepare a special report on Civilian Rehabilitation in your state. Consult the official in charge at your state school office.

13. Do you have R.O.T.C. units in your state? Describe the purpose and activities of a typical unit.
14. Why was the New Deal interested, and how was it involved, in education?
15. Why did some of the professional educators object to the Civilian Conservation Corps? the National Youth Administration?
16. Debate the issue described in the chapter content under the caption "The Problem of Federal Government and Education."
17. Is there any danger that two conflicting educational systems may develop in the United States?
18. Describe the U. S. Office of Education and its role in American education.
19. Describe the educational setup in one of the territories or island possessions. (The U. S. Office of Education has published many bulletins on these units.)
20. Secure detailed information regarding the Graduate School of the Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C., and prepare a class report.
21. Do you fear Federal control of education? Why, or why not?
22. Debate the issue: Resolved, that we favor Federal aid to elementary and secondary education.

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CHAPTER 9

STATE SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

The office of chief state school officials should be the head and heart of the school system.—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICERS, 1945

Education is primarily a state function. In the previous chapter reference was made to the Tenth Amendment of the Constitution of the United States, ratified in 1791: "*The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.*" As was noted, since this early date education has been state-centered. Even today, the state is the most powerful factor in American public education.

There is no such thing as "the American educational system." In reality, there are as many educational systems as there are states, territories, and island possessions, literally fifty-six varieties. It must be admitted, however, that although no two systems are identical, there are fundamental similarities among all systems. Nevertheless, each state determines for itself the most important issues in education, the compulsory school age, the financial support of education, the qualifications of teachers, the textbooks to be studied, and the powers of local school boards. The similarities are due to the uneven development of the country and the fact that the newer states copied the practices of the older states. The many states which were territories under the supervision and control of the Federal government before they became states were shaped by the same general policies. Also, the Federal land and money grants have served to some extent as unifying agencies, forcing the participants into much the same pattern.

The educational system of a given state depends upon the state constitution and state statutes, upon the interpretations of

these made from time to time by the state superintendent of public instruction, the state attorney general and the courts, and upon the modification of the laws made by each successive legislature. In general it can be said that the educational system of any state is *dynamic*, not static. However, some systems are more dynamic than others.

Ordinarily, the state is not engaged directly in common school education, even though it may operate institutions of higher learning and special schools. Its primary function is to build the framework within which the local community is authorized to function and to see that the community does function educationally. Thus the elementary and secondary schools of the nation are essentially local institutions. The main function of the state is to enforce some degree of uniformity in educational support and procedures.

Such uniformity as prevails in American schools is accomplished through the policies of the state boards, the leadership of the state superintendents, and the work of the professional employees of the state school offices. These agencies and agents also stimulate, recognize, and legalize much of the experimentation that goes on in the local school systems. Much of their work is cooperative; policies depend upon leadership and leadership entails followership.

In some states, the governor, especially through his appointive power, exerts a great influence on education. Usually he appoints the members of the state board of education, and in some states, where the government is centralized in the governor, he appoints the chief state school official and answers to the people directly for the influence he wields in school matters. A good governor can do much for education in any state, particularly one with a centralized setup. A poor governor can undo in one term of office much of the good that has been accomplished over a long period of time.

Numerous boards, other than the state school board, have direct influence on educational matters, such as the state board of health. By tradition, each board tries to carry out the functions assigned to it by law without regard to the work of the other boards. In many states, there is a crying need for

some agency which can serve as a policy-forming board for all aspects of education. Meanwhile, the borderline phases of education—health, finance, safety, child labor, welfare, juvenile protection—are ineffective unless the officials directly concerned can and do cooperate with one another.

Constitutional and Statutory Provisions for Education

The constitution of each state in the Union recognizes the responsibility of the state for education. This is in keeping with the popular interpretation of the Tenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution.

The general tendency has been toward increasing the number of provisions made about education in the constitutions of the states. The states admitted to the Union prior to 1820 had on the average only one provision about education in their first constitution. The eleven states admitted between 1821 and 1860 had an average of more than five provisions regarding education in their first constitutions; the four states admitted between 1861 and 1880 averaged over nine provisions; the seven admitted between 1881 and 1900 averaged fourteen provisions; and the three states admitted since 1900 have made on the average approximately eighteen provisions for education. Although the constitutional provisions in the various states differ in form, in length, and in number of explicit details which are set forth, the universality of the arrangement for a school system in each of the state constitutions is a most significant testimony regarding the general attitude of American citizens toward education as a function of their government.¹

Unfortunately, in their anxiety for education, some states have constitutional provisions regarding education which restrict needlessly the proper functioning of the educational program. For example, many constitutions specify the salary to be received by the chief state school official. In many instances this salary is too low to attract candidates who are properly qualified for this high office. In many instances, it has been impossible to pass a constitutional amendment and the office is either occupied by a second-rate man or by a first-rate man at considerable sacrifice. Other examples could be

¹ John Dale Russell and Charles H. Judd, *The American Educational System*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940, pp. 103-104.

given showing how a state made a *static* regulation for something that should be left flexible.

The state legislature usually determines the nature of the local units for the management of the schools; it provides the plan for the local administration of the school; it authorizes the plan of financial support; and, it often fixes many details of educational policy. "The legislature is the chief agency through which society may express its will in the management of the schools."

Every state has voluminous laws regarding education. In fact, every session of every state legislature has a docket of scores of educational bills. The sanity of the legislators usually prevents the passage of especially injurious bills, but oftentimes the laymen vote upon highly professional matters that are better left to the discretion of the officials charged with educational leadership.

Every school official, state and local, must familiarize himself with the statutory provisions regarding education. Teachers are not immune; statutes specify subjects teachers must teach, days they must commemorate with special programs, examinations in special fields they must pass—narcotics, safety, nature study, etc.

The State Board of Education

The term, "state board of education" is usually applied to the thirty-nine state boards that exercise some control over elementary or secondary schools. In some instances these boards also have control over other types of schools. Each of the states has one or more state boards that have educational functions, but not all have provided an agency for the general oversight of the school system. The board of regents for the state university or the board of trustees for the land-grant college, where they are distinct, are also state boards, but not in the sense in which the term "state board of education" is commonly used.

The Board of Regents of the State of New York is the oldest state board, having been established in 1784. However, it was

not given control of all the public schools of the state until 1904. North Carolina and Vermont had state boards before 1830; Connecticut, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Missouri, and Tennessee, before 1840; Arkansas and Michigan, before 1850; California, Indiana, Kansas, New Hampshire, Oregon, and Utah before 1860; Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, Texas, and Virginia, before 1870; Colorado, Delaware, and South Carolina, before 1880; Arizona, before 1890; Idaho, Montana, Oklahoma, and Wyoming, before 1900; Georgia, Washington, and West Virginia, before 1910; and, Pennsylvania and Minnesota, before 1920.²

These boards have either constitutional or statutory origins. The constitutions of eighteen of the above-named states provide for state boards of education, and the statutes of twenty-one states have a similar provision.

In 1940, the state boards of education were made up in three different patterns: (1) all ex officio members, (2) entirely of appointed or elected members, or (3) partly of ex officio and partly of appointed or elected members. In fifteen states the governor was a member of the board; in eight states some other state officials not engaged in educational work were members—usually the attorney-general or secretary of state; in twenty-four states the chief state school official was an ex officio member. In eight states all or most of the members were ex officio; in twenty states, all or most of the members were appointed by the governor or elected; in one state (New York) the members were appointed by the state legislature and in one (Utah) they were elected by members of the local school boards.

The trend is definitely away from ex officio boards. Such officials usually have other more urgent duties to perform. Moreover, they often have political axes to grind. From 1920 to 1940 the number of state boards having no ex officio members increased from seven to twelve. The trend is to appoint public-spirited, enlightened citizens who are willing to give their time to the cause of education. The state board of education is

² *State Boards of Education and Chief State School Officers: Their Status and Legal Powers*, U. S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 6. Monograph No. 1, 1940.

usually charged by law with the determination of educational policies, the administration of the elementary and secondary schools, the distribution of state school funds, the determination of courses of study, the certification of teachers, and, less frequently, with the adopting of textbooks, the formulation of school building codes, and the supervision of library service.

Several state boards of education exercise direct control over the state teachers colleges (Alabama, California, Connecticut, Florida, Idaho, Louisiana, Maryland, Michigan, Montana, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, and Wisconsin); some influence all institutions of higher learning (Florida, Idaho, Montana, New York, West Virginia); some influence all institutions of higher learning except the state university (California, Louisiana, Maryland, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Tennessee, Vermont); and, most of them control state vocational schools of one sort or another.

In most instances the state board of education also serves as the state board of vocational education. Without exception the states have the latter board, whether they have a state board of education or not, in order to participate in Smith-Hughes and similar Federal money grants.

The Chief State School Official

The detailed work of the state board of education is carried out by its executive officer, the chief state school official. However, the office of chief state school official is older than the state board of education in many states. New York was the first state to establish the office (1812). Maryland was next in line (1826), then Michigan (1829). In the decade 1830-1839, eight other states made provision for the office, and by 1850 the office had been created in twenty-four states and territories. Now, every state in the Union has a chief state school official.

The provisions for the New York office (1812), the first of its kind, reveal the nature of the position:

... it shall be the duty of the superintendent . . . to digest and prepare plans for the improvement and management of the common

school fund, and for the better organization of common schools; to prepare and report estimates and expenditures of the school moneys, to superintend the collection thereof; to execute services relative to the sale of lands, which now are or hereafter may be appropriated, as a permanent fund for the support of common schools, as may be by law required of him; to give information to the legislature respecting all matters referred to him by either branch thereof, or which will appertain to his office; and generally to perform all such services relative to the welfare of the schools as he shall be directed to perform. . . .

In the early days, while the duties of the chief state school official had mainly to do with school lands and moneys, the office was frequently held by other state officials, acting in ex officio capacity. However, the work of Horace Mann as secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education (1837) set a model other states hastened to follow. In time, the office of chief state school official was "the head and the heart" of the school system.

The chief state school official has different titles in different states. In twenty-seven states he is known as the *superintendent of public instruction*; in ten, as the *commissioner of education*; in three, as the *superintendent of education*; in two, as the *director of education*; in one, as the *superintendent of public instruction and director of education*; in one, as the *superintendent of public schools*; and, in one as the *superintendent of free schools*.

Commissioner of education is a title that has come into use since 1900, and is used to designate an official appointed by a state board of education, or by the governor. However, in 1940, thirty-two states continued to elect their chief state school officials, who held one of the older titles. This was true despite the fact that the authorities in state school administration have been recommending for years that the chief state school official be appointed by the state board of education, or in the absence of a state board, by the governor. In 1940, the state boards selected only eight chief state school officials and the governors appointed eight. Between 1920 and 1940, the elective system was abandoned by Arkansas and Virginia. Arkansas provides for appointment by the state board, and Virginia by the

governor. In this same period, one state (Rhode Island) changed from appointment by the state board to appointment by the governor.

Inasmuch as the office is designated in the state constitution, in most cases it will take a constitutional amendment to change the title, or, where the salary is named in the constitution, to change the salary. As a result, in all too many states the chief state school official is a politician on a second-rate salary, with far less prestige, salary, and tenure than a city superintendent of schools or a university dean or department head.

In 1939-40, the median annual salary of the chief state school official was \$5,286. The lowest salary was \$2,400, in one state; the highest, \$15,000, in two states. In sixteen states the salary was less than \$5,000; in twenty-three states, from \$5,000 to \$7,500; and, in only nine states, \$7,500 or more. By contrast, in 1937, approximately 83 per cent of the state university presidents and 65 per cent of the presidents of land-grant colleges that were separate institutions received salaries of \$7,000 or more (as contrasted with only 19 per cent of the chief state school officials). In 1938-39, the median salary of school superintendents in cities of 100,000 population or more was \$8,286 (or \$3,000 more than the median salary of the chief state school official). In fact, the median salary of the school superintendent in communities between 30,000 and 100,000 was \$6,125 (which is \$839 more than the median salary of the chief state school official in 1940).

In states where the chief state school official is elected, he has to be a qualified resident citizen of the state. If appointed by the governor, he is usually a citizen of the state. However, state boards of education with appointive power have been known to go out of the state, where necessary, to get the best qualified man available.

It is a fact that of the men occupying the office of chief state school official those appointed by state boards have had the highest academic qualifications. In 1940, 62.5 per cent of those appointed by boards had non-honorary doctors' degrees (i.e. earned degrees), as compared with 37.5 per cent appointed by governors, and 13.8 per cent elected by the people. However,

it must be conceded that on the whole the chief state school officials are a well-educated group.

Characteristic Features of State Educational Agencies

The U. S. Office of Education has made an attempt to present in outline form the relationships of the state school board, the chief state school official, and other educational bodies, in all states. For our purpose, we present four examples: one with an elected *state superintendent of public instruction* (Colorado); one with a *commissioner of education* appointed by the governor (Massachusetts); one with a *commissioner of education* appointed by a state board of education (Minnesota); and one without a state board of education (Illinois).³

COLORADO

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

1. There is a State constitutional provision for a State Board of Education, composed of the State Superintendent, Secretary of State, and Attorney General.
2. Under the State constitution, "The general supervision of the public schools of the State shall be vested in a Board of Education, whose powers and duties shall be prescribed by law. . . ." The State legislature has made very few specific grants of power to the State board, but has vested in the State Superintendent, as head of the Department of Education, most of the State supervisory responsibility over the public elementary and secondary schools of the State.

There is little centralization of State control of education either in the State Board or the State Superintendent. The State constitution specifically vests the "control of instruction" in local boards of education.

State Superintendent

1. Constitutional provision for a State Superintendent elected by popular vote.
2. Is vested with general supervision of all county superintendents and of the public schools.

³ *Ibid.*, Ch. 4.

3. Is chief executive officer of the department of education.
4. Ex officio member of the Board of Trustees of Teachers Colleges, and other educational boards. (See *Separate Boards*, below.)
5. Is the principal State agent for:
 - Determination of State educational policy.
 - Administration of elementary and secondary schools.
 - Distribution of State school funds.
 - Determination of course of study.
 - Certification of teachers, aided by a State Board of Examiners.
 - State school library service.

Separate Boards

1. Board of Trustees of the State Teachers Colleges: Composed of the State Superintendent, and 6 others appointed by the Governor.
2. State Board of Examiners: Composed of the State Superintendent and 8 others appointed by him.
3. State Board for Vocational Education: Composed of 5 members appointed by the Governor.
4. Each State higher educational institution is under a separate governing board (except the Teachers Colleges).

MASSACHUSETTS *

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

1. Legislative provision for a State "Advisory Board of Education" of 6 members appointed by the Governor, at least 2 of whom shall be women.
2. The advisory board of education and the Commissioner of Education shall supervise and control the Department of Education.
3. Principal State agency for:
 - Advisory service to the Commissioner of Education with respect to education in general.
 - Administration of vocational education (with the Commissioner of Education).

State Commissioner of Education

1. Legislative provision for a State Commissioner of Education appointed by the Governor.

* Massachusetts is a State in which the principal State educational functions are under the management of the commissioner of education, and the State board is principally an advisory board.

2. Is the executive and administrative head of the Department of Education which is one of the major departments of the State Government.
3. Is ex officio member of the State College Governing Board and Teacher Retirement Board.
4. Principal State agent for:
 - Determination of State educational policy.
 - Administration of elementary and secondary schools.
 - Distribution of State school funds.
 - Administration of State teachers colleges, and the determination of courses of study therein.
 - Certification of teachers.
 - Supervision of school library service with aid of library division in the Department of Education.
 - Administration of vocational education (with the Advisory Board of Education).

Separate Boards

1. The governing boards of the several State educational institutions are appointed by the Governor, and all of them (except the State College) are attached to and serve in the Department of Education which is under the general supervision of the State Commissioner of Education.
2. Teacher Retirement Board: Composed of the Commissioner of Education, 1 member elected by the retirement association, and 1 additional member chosen by the other 2.

MINNESOTA

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

1. Legislative provision for a State Board of Education of 5 members appointed by the Governor.
2. Is vested with the general supervision and control of the public school system (except the State University and State normal schools).
3. Appoints the State Commissioner of Education.
4. Principal State agency for:
 - Determination of State educational policy.
 - Administration of elementary and secondary schools.
 - Distribution of State school funds.
 - Determination of course of study.

Certification of teachers.

Administration of school library service.

Administration of vocational education.

State Superintendent

1. Legislative provision for a State Commissioner of Education appointed by the State Board of Education.
2. Is executive officer and secretary of the State Board of Education, and shall perform the general functions previously exercised by the State Superintendent, subject to the laws and rules of the State Board.
3. Is ex officio member of the Government Board of the State University, and also of the Board of Directors of the State Teachers Colleges and of the Teacher Retirement Board.
4. Principal State agent for:
 - Enforcement of school laws and execution of State rules and policies of the State Board.
 - Approval of school building plans.

Separate Boards

1. Board of Directors of State Teachers Colleges: Composed of the State Commissioner of Education and 8 other members appointed by the Governor.
2. Board of Regents of State University: Composed of 10 members elected by State legislature, and the Governor, the Commissioner of Education, and the President of the University.
3. Board of Trustees of Teacher Retirement Fund: Composed of Commissioner of Education, State Auditor, Commissioner of Insurance and 2 other members elected by and from the Retirement Association.

ILLINOIS

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

Illinois has no State Board of Education.

State Superintendent

1. Constitutional provision for a State Superintendent elected by popular vote, and who is a member of the executive department of the State Government.
2. Shall "supervise all the common and public schools of the state," and make such rules as may be necessary for an efficient and uniform effect of the laws for the maintenance of free schools.

3. Principal State agency for :

- Determination of State educational policy.
- Administration of elementary and secondary schools.
- Distribution of State school funds.
- Determination of course of study.
- Certification of teachers, with aid of a board of examiners.
- Supervision of school building plans.

Separate or Special Boards

1. Board for Vocational Education: Composed of 5 members, all ex officio, including the State Superintendent as member and executive officer.
2. State Teachers College Board: Composed of the Director of Registration and the State Superintendent (ex officio members), and 9 others appointed by the Governor.
3. Teachers' Examining Board: Composed of the State Superintendent and 6 other persons engaged in educational work, appointed by the State Superintendent.
4. Trustees of the Teacher Retirement System: Composed of 5 members, State Superintendent ex officio member and chairman, 2 appointed by the Governor, and 2 appointed by the Retirement Association.
5. The State University is under a separate governing board, composed of the Governor and State Superintendent (ex officio members), and 9 other members elected by the people.

The State School Office

The calibre of the state school office staff is of great importance. If it is made up of professionally minded persons of experience and judgment, beyond the reprisals of the politicians and the spoils system, the state schools are in good hands. As has been frequently observed, the state superintendent is, in many cases, left chiefly with the responsibility of contacts with the political party and the lay public, while the staff members perform the professional duties of the office.

In many respects a staff member is better situated than the elected official. Usually, he has better tenure (although the spoils system still operates in many states; which means that each chief selects almost a new staff, each member of which is

cleared with the officers of the victorious political party). Oftentimes, the professional staff member has greater professional prestige (although, if politically appointed, a political subordinate has less prestige than a political boss). Occasionally, the staff member has better remuneration (his salary may not be so great as that of the elected official, but he may not have to contribute to the political coffers). In a number of states, over the years, there has been built up a personnel in the state office that is entirely competent and entirely free of political pressures.

Obviously, the situation is best in the state offices where the chief state school officials are appointed by the state board of education. Especially is this the case where the board members are appointed for long terms that place them beyond the reprisal of the governor. Moreover, the chief state school official selected by an appointive board will likely conduct a better state office than one subject to the whims and caprices of political bosses and to the necessity of standing election every few years.

The personnel of the state office should be selected on the basis of merit and fitness for the office. The staff should be nominated by the chief state school official and approved by the state board of education. Moreover, the state board should adopt policies, at the chief's suggestion, that will make both compensation and working conditions attractive enough to obtain and retain competent personnel.

Planning an Adequate Program of Education

In contrast to a highly centralized national system of education, such as France maintains, a decentralized system such as we maintain in the United States, involving national, state, and local agencies, poses many problems. The maintenance of an adequate educational program in each state in the Union is a goal to be sought, not a reality. Much of the responsibility for education—as we shall see in a later Chapter—is carried by officials of the local school districts, operating by the permission of, and to some extent under, the leadership of the state. Much of the influence of the state board of education and the chief

state school official is persuasive, not legal. Under our Federal statutes the influence of the U. S. Office of Education has been reduced to a minimum, so that each state could go its way. Thus, we see, education in the United States is not coordinated and integrated.

A satisfactory program of education in the United States is a joint enterprise of the locality, the state, and the nation. Moreover, it is largely a voluntary project. Except when the chief state school official is fulfilling a specific statutory charge, the local districts may, and frequently do, ignore his leadership. Inasmuch as the states are freer from the domination of the Federal government than the localities are from state control, the states pay even less attention to the wishes of the U. S. Commissioner of Education than the localities pay to the chief state school official. Such influence as the chief state official commands, as well as that of the chief Federal official, depends upon the quality of the educational leadership.

Education is a matter of common concern. The welfare of the United States depends upon the quality of education in every state, county, city, town, unincorporated place, and rural school in the entire country. There is an increasing awareness of the fact that wise educational planning will involve the officials and citizens of all these units. The U. S. Commissioner of Education should influence the chief state school officials; they, in turn, should influence the superintendents of the local school units; who, in turn, should see that the local school units contribute to the state and the national well-being. The planning procedure and process should be carefully formulated, unified, and systematically carried out.

Weaknesses in the state educational organization, when neglected, tend to result in usurpations of other agencies of state government and in encroachments of agencies of the Federal government. Whenever the state school office fails to meet any educational problem, some legislation is forthcoming at the next session of the state legislature; and if the state office is not interested or concerned, some other educational agency is set up. Moreover, when any state, or combination of states, neglects any problem so long that it becomes a matter of

national concern, the Federal government will legislate and set up educational agencies, even a parallel school system—NYA is such an example. If the state school office is concerned with maintaining its unique position in American education, it must assume the leadership and do the job at hand.

Although it is not necessary that the plan of educational organization in all states be identical, the same sound principles should underlie each system. The quotation below presents principles of effective state school organization :

Constitutional Provisions

1. The state constitution should contain the basic provisions for the organization, administration, and support of a program of public education; and it should empower and direct the legislature to establish the general plan for carrying out the basic provisions so set forth. These basic provisions should be concerned with such matters as equality of educational opportunity; free public education, at least through the secondary level; and fiscal independence of local school districts from other local governmental units.

Legislative Provisions

2. The legislature should enact enabling statutes for the organization, administration, and support of the state system of education.

3. The legislature should create a State Board of Education and define its powers and duties.

4. The legislature should delegate to the State Board of Education authority to establish such minimum standards and technical requirements as are consistent with the statutes.

State Board of Education

5. The State Board of Education should be the policy-making board at the state level for the entire state educational system. Pending the time that one over-all board is established, it is desirable that some form of coordinating board be established which can be regarded as representing the entire state educational system in such matters of educational concern as affect the entire state; e.g., dealing with problems of surplus commodities, the education of veterans.

6. The State Board of Education should comprise no more than nine nor less than five members, selected to serve for relatively long and overlapping terms, so as to assure reasonable continuity and consistency in policies.

7. Members of the Board of Education should be selected according to some plan which will insure freedom from domination by partisan political factions.

Chief State School Officer

8. The Chief State School Officer should serve as secretary and executive officer of the State Board of Education.

State Department of Education

9. The State Department of Education, which should consist of the Chief State School Officer and his staff, should be organized as a state service agency in the field of education to provide professional leadership and guidance, to coordinate educational services, and to carry out the policies and duties authorized by the State Board of Education.

10. The personnel of the department should be selected on the basis of merit and fitness by the State Board of Education upon the recommendation of the Chief State School Officer. Compensation and working conditions should be such as to attract and retain competent personnel.

11. The organization of the department should facilitate providing efficiently all needed services and should promote coordination and integration among the services. The organization should grow out of and be adapted to meet the needs of the state. The divisional organization should be established by the Chief State School Officer with the approval of the State Board of Education. (Ordinarily there should be at least two and preferably not more than four or five divisions in a department.) ⁴

STUDY AIDS

1. Do you agree with the opening sentence "Education is primarily a state function"?
2. Should each state determine its educational policies without regard to the welfare of other states?
3. Does your state have a state board of education? How is it constituted? How does it function?
4. Does your state board have ex officio members? Should it?

⁴ National Council of Chief State School Officers, "Work of State Departments of Education." For the complete report, see *The School Executive*, Vol. 64, No. 10 (June, 1945).

5. How are state teachers colleges controlled in your state? How should they be administered?
6. How does your state select its chief school official? How should he be selected?
7. Distinguish between a "state superintendent of public instruction" and a "state commissioner of education."
8. What is the salary of your chief state school official? Is it high enough?
9. Following the outline used in the text, prepare to hand in a description of the educational organization in your state.
10. Describe the personnel and functioning of your state school office. How influential is your state school office?
11. Evaluate your state school system in terms of the quotation at the chapter ending.

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CHAPTER 10

LOCAL SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Every rural child has the right through his school to health services, educational and vocational guidance, library facilities, recreational activities, and, where needed, school lunches and pupil transportation facilities at public expense. Such special services, because they require the employment of specially qualified personnel, can be supplied most easily through enlarged units of school administration and the co-operation of several small schools.—A CHARTER OF EDUCATION FOR RURAL CHILDREN

The American public school is essentially a local institution. Even though public education is a function of the state, at the elementary and secondary school levels it is carried on by the local schools. In order to discharge its educational responsibility the state may use any of its political subdivisions, such as towns, cities, counties, or townships, or it may create school districts irrespective of established political units. Although the local school districts are accountable to the state agencies for their stewardship, in many, if not most, respects the schools are dominated by local policies and practices. In fact, before the state took over education as a state function, it was—and in large measure continues to be—a responsibility of the locality immediately concerned.

The New England Town School

The first American school systems were established in the New England towns. Originally, each New England settlement was a social unit; most of the early settlers came to New England in groups, usually under the leadership of a minister, oftentimes as a church congregation. To the inhabitants of these towns, as they were called, the general court granted the

entire land of the communities, usually six square miles, although there was no fixed standard of allotment. The meeting house was the center of the town; later the church, the school, and the town hall faced the town common. Actually, all citizens in Massachusetts were required by law in 1635 to live within one-half mile of the meeting-house. This law was repealed in 1640.

The pattern for the control and support of our American public school was set in these early New England towns. All matters relating to the interests of the inhabitants were discussed in the town meetings, taxes were levied and bylaws enacted. In 1636, the general court sanctioned the exercise of these rights insofar as they did not contravene the rights and enactments of the general court. Thus, the general court gave legal sanction to what the towns were already doing, including the establishment and maintenance of schools.

In 1647, the Massachusetts Bay Colony enacted a law "which was the foundation of the American public school system."¹ At that time half the towns of Massachusetts had established public schools, and private schools no doubt existed in the remaining towns. By this law the voluntary custom of maintaining school was made obligatory on all towns of fifty or more families. The American free school was the gradual outgrowth of the provision in the Law of 1647, that the master might be paid "by the inhabitants in general."

By the close of the seventeenth century many of the forces that required a compact form of settlement—fear of savages, religious fervor, and the traditions of the mother country—began to lose their hold. It was safe, and was now necessary, to move farther away from the town center. Accordingly, new settlements arose within the area officially constituting the town, miles away from the meeting house and the schoolhouse. Also, life on the isolated farm, now so universal in America, was developed. Under these circumstances, it was impossible for the children, especially the younger tots, to attend the town school regularly.

¹ Paul Monroe, *Founding of the American Public School System*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1940, p. 109.

The dispersion of population in the New England town caused a marked change in the school system. Poor roads, severe winters, occasional unfriendly Indians and wild animals, and the topography of the New England countryside were all obstacles to attendance at the distant town school. As a result, there was instituted "the moving school." The inhabitants in the outlying communities insisted that they get something for their money—the schoolmaster had to move from locality to locality, sometimes from home to home. The difficulty was that children in the town center, as well as others who could attend regularly, if they could not travel with the master from hamlet to hamlet, now attended only three or four months each year. The solution to this vexing problem was the typically American district school; the town school was divided into several parts, taught by several masters.

In the first half of the eighteenth century these schools became free schools. As indicated above, the scattered population could not attend a central school, and the smaller schools could not be supported by tuition rates alone. Moreover, the law demanded a school, penalizing non-compliance with a heavy fine. Under the circumstances, it was more sensible—and probably cheaper in some instances—to support the smaller schools by a general tax. Such a tax would be voted only on condition that a school was accessible to all concerned. Hence, several small schools took the place of the central school. We then had all the earmarks of the American public school system: a local school, locally controlled and supported, operating under the general supervision of the commonwealth. In 1768, the general court authorized precincts "to expend more for the instruction of children and youth in useful learning within their own bounds, than as parts of such towns or districts they are, by law, held to do." To local control and local support was added local option and local pride—the stuff out of which we were to build the American public school system. The district system may be traced to the early New England state laws (Connecticut, 1766, and Massachusetts, 1789), which gave each school district the right to elect trustees, levy district school taxes, and select a teacher.

As Cubberley observed, "The practical effect of these laws was that the school system, instead of embracing schools of different types and grades, was gradually narrowed down to a one-room district school for children of all ages and in every variety of study."²

With this narrowing effect in mind, Horace Mann declared the Law of 1789, "the most unfortunate law on the subject of education ever enacted by the State of Massachusetts."³

The Unification of the City Schools

The district school system reached its zenith about 1835. By 1850, its serious defects as a plan for school organization and administration had become evident to the inhabitants of the larger cities, and the process of unification was under way. By 1890, there was a marked tendency to abolish the district system, not only in cities but in rural areas as well. Nevertheless, even at this late date over half the states legalize the old-fashioned district school organization.

From this distance, it is difficult to visualize the district system in operation within cities. Unfortunately, such was the case. Cubberley cites several examples of early city-district consolidations.⁴ In 1837, there were seven one-teacher school districts in Buffalo, a city of 15,000 inhabitants. In 1839, at the time of the establishment of the Buffalo free-school system, the number of districts was increased to fifteen. In 1842, the state legislature abolished the district school system in Detroit and provided for the organization of a unified system of schools under a city board of education. In 1853, there were seven school districts in the city of Chicago, employing thirty-four teachers in ungraded schools with an average of ninety-one children to a teacher. Moreover, much of the city was without schools. In 1857, the Illinois legislature abolished the district system in Chicago and created a city board of education.

² Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934 (revised edition), p. 73.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 73 (quoted).

⁴ *Loc. cit.*, pp. 317-319.

As recently as 1890, a western state, Utah, passed a law making the school district and the city limits coterminous in cities of the first and second class and placing the schools of said cities under the control of city boards of education. At one time there were over a score of district school systems operating within the territorial limits of Salt Lake City.

In general, the state legislatures recognized the plight of the cities with several competing school systems and created independent city school systems. In this manner the city schools escaped domination by the counties and became answerable to the state alone.

In 1934, Cubberley said, "practically all the educational progress . . . happening within the past three-quarters of a century has been city progress. Unfortunately for rural and village education, this statement is only too true."⁵

The Rural District School

As the New Englanders moved westward, they took with them the pattern of school organization that was familiar to them. As Cubberley observed,

. . . the district system was the natural system in the early days of state school organization and control. At a time when population was sparse, intercourse limited, communication difficult, supervision practically absent, and isolation the rule, the district system rendered its greatest service. It provided schools suited to the wants and needs of country people, and where and as fast as the people were willing to support them. The system was well adapted, too, to the earlier ideas as to the nature and purpose of education. Schools then were purely local affairs, and the imparting of a limited amount of information was almost their sole purpose. Knowledge then was power, and the schools were conducted on a knowledge basis, undisturbed by any ideas as to psychological procedure, social needs, or by the civic and economic problems of the present. The system, too, was well adapted to a deep-seated conviction of the time as to the sacredness of local government and an unshaken confidence in a localized administration of all civic affairs.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 718.

Each community levied largely for its own ends, and was largely a law unto itself. Freedom and liberty were conceived of, as expressed by one of our poets, as:

The right of every freeborn man
To do as he darned pleases.

Naturally, under such conditions, every little community felt itself competent to select and examine its teachers, adopt its own course of study, determine the methods of instruction, supervise and criticize the teacher, and determine all such matters as boarding-around arrangements, tax rate, and length of term. The three district trustees, with the people in district meeting, exercised very important functions in guiding the Ship of State, and to many a man in the districts the office of school trustee was the most important office within the gift of the American people to which he might ever hope to aspire.⁶

Fortunately, by 1850, there was a marked tendency to limit the powers of the district meeting, and to take away powers from the trustees and transfer them to the newly constituted county and state school superintendents. No longer did the local trustees select textbooks, control the course of study, or examine or certify teachers. Moreover, the length of the school term, the tax levy for school purposes, and the subjects to be taught were now specified by state law.

Nevertheless, with these modifications the district school is still the dominant type of school organization in the United States. The Middle West, the Northwest, and the Southwest are still under the sway of the district school. Many states, especially the prairie states, have several thousand one-teacher district schools, each more or less a law unto itself. Of course, all of these district schools are now under state supervision, such as it is, and some few are under fairly adequate county supervision.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 320-321. An amusing example of the shortsightedness of school trustees is cited by Cubberley (*ibid.*). The school trustees of Lancaster, Ohio, in 1826, refused to permit the use of the schoolhouse for a meeting to discuss railroads, replying to the petitioners:

"You are welcome to use the schoolhouse to debate all proper questions in, but such things as railroads are impossibilities and rank infidelity. There is nothing in the word of God about them. If God designed that His intelligent creatures should travel at the frightful speed of fifteen miles an hour by steam, He would have clearly foretold through His holy prophets. It is a device to lead immortal souls down to hell."

Cubberley lamented:

The rural and village schools of most of our states, cut off by constitutional provisions or by state laws from securing directive oversight from outside the county, and within the county only on a political basis, and split up into thousands of little unrelated school districts, unable adequately to finance themselves and inspired by no unity of purpose and animated by no modern conception of educational work, have gone along without much change since the days of the fifties and the sixties.⁷

The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, reported that,

The present status of administrative units in many school districts is chaotic, but a number of states point the way toward desirable organization. There are over 115,000 administrative units in the 48 states, and the number of units per state varies from less than 200 in each of 13 states to over 5000 in each of 10 states. The average area of the administrative unit, by states, varies from 5 square miles in Illinois, which has over 10,000 units, to 3319 square miles in New Mexico, which has 103 administrative units. The average number of teachers per administrative unit, by states, varies from less than 5 in each of 16 states having predominantly small units to over 100 teachers per unit in each of 12 other states having larger units.⁸

In a talk before the White House Conference on Rural Education, held October 3, 1944, Dr. Howard R. Dawson, noted,

The rural schools of the nation are administered on the local level thru over 100,000 local units of school districts. In 26 states the schools are organized on the basis of the local or common school district, at least 17 kinds of which are described in the statutes. Usually in rural farm areas, each school constitutes a separate unit of administration with its own board of education and its own local taxes. Thousands of these districts employ only one or two teachers. Herein lies one of the most critical troubles in rural education.⁹

At that time, 108,000 schools, approximately 51 per cent of all rural schools, employed one teacher, and 25,000, or 13 per

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 719.

⁸ *The White House Conference on Rural Education*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1944, p. 154.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 38.

cent, employed two teachers. It was estimated that only about 6 per cent of the rural schools had staffs of more than six teachers. Moreover, one out of five rural schools attempting to do four years of high school work had a staff of but one or two teachers, and three out of five schools, four teachers or fewer.¹⁰ In 1930-40, the average salary of the rural teacher was about \$967, approximately one-half of what the teachers in the city areas received, about \$1,937.

The County School Systems

Another importation to the colonies from England that assumed educational significance was the county unit. Whereas religious and economic conditions favored the town unit in New England, the larger county unit seemed to be best suited to life in the South. In much the same manner that education became a town function in New England, in the South it became a county function. As Cook puts it, "educational functions, north and south, were attached to the towns and counties, because they were handy hooks upon which to hang these new duties."¹¹

In due time, it became necessary elsewhere to create some sort of an intermediate governmental unit between the village or rural folk and the state government. This new unit, the county, was charged with much of the administrative routine and detail in all aspects of government, including education. All states except the New England states, New York, Delaware, and Nevada have county functionaries in the realm of education. New England towns are still sovereign in education. New York, Delaware, and Nevada no longer have county superintendents of schools. New York has a strong state school office, centering in the Board of Regents. Delaware has the only state unit for the control of education. Nevada has grouped its counties into five districts for school supervision, due to the sparseness of population. In the Southern states and in Utah, Maryland, Ohio, California, and New Mexico the

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 181.

¹¹ William A. Cook, *Federal and State School Administration*, New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927, p. 163.

county is the recognized unit for school organization and administration outside of the incorporated cities.

The White House Conference on Rural Education, 1944, reported,

In two states—Florida and West Virginia—the county is the administrative unit. In Maryland the county serves as the administrative unit except for one city unit. In Louisiana the parish serves as the administrative unit except for three cities. Twelve states place entire or chief dependence upon the county as an administrative unit. These states are Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and West Virginia. These states have only a total of 1400 administrative units, or slightly over one per cent of the national total. In contrast, 12 other states have a total of over 81,000 administrative units, or over 72 per cent of the national total. These states are Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, Oklahoma, Texas, and Wisconsin.¹²

Although there is a tendency to discredit the chief county school official, usually called the county superintendent of schools, as Cook points out, "his functions touching education are noteworthy."¹³ It is true that the early duties of the county superintendent were largely clerical, keeping records and making reports on the number of schools, the attendance, and on other matters, such as the school census and the enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws, as might be required by the state. It is also true that in half the states the county superintendent is still elected by the people, oftentimes on a partisan ballot and platform. As a group, the county superintendents are not well educated, are not professionally trained or minded, and do not receive adequate salaries. Nevertheless, as Cook notes, the county superintendent performs many important duties:

In the *administrative* field he is found making an annual report to the state superintendent, preparing the teachers' payroll for the county treasurer, notifying districts of the amount of school funds apportioned to them, or actually making such apportionment, distributing blanks for reports of teachers or district officers, filling vacancies in

¹² The White House Conference, *loc. cit.*, pp. 154-155.

¹³ Cook, *op. cit.*, p. 174.

district boards, seeing that all children in school are vaccinated, administering oaths to and executing bonds of directors. In the *judicial* realm it is his business to hear appeals from the decisions of boards of directors, to suspend teachers or trustees, revoke licenses, and pass upon disputes over district boundaries and petitions for change of district lines. . . . As an *inspector* the county superintendent examines school property and premises, orders repairs and alterations of the same, sometimes sets his own teachers' examinations and issues certificates to those who meet his requirements, examines and graduates students from the elementary school. As a *supervisor* he enforces the use of the course of study, even prepares it, holds teachers' institutes, meetings of directors, and public gatherings in promotion of greater interest in education.¹⁴

Even so, Cook, one of the most careful students of this aspect of school administration, admits, "Most of the county superintendents have little real power in a professional way. They act as a 'rubber stamp' for county commissioners or state departments. They spend their time in 'inspecting,' 'visiting,' 'supervision,'—in short, in *advising* what should be done."¹⁵

Obviously, Cook did not mean this statement to apply to those states where the county is the established unit for the control of education. Says he, "County school administration has caught meaning in those states where it has been given thorough and compelling jurisdiction."¹⁶

Consolidated Schools

The cure for the evils of the district school and the poorer type of county school administration is the consolidation of the schools of the county under professional leadership. This involves abandoning the old-fashioned three-trustee district school, unifying all the schools under a county board of education, and permitting the board to select the best possible superintendent from several qualified, professionally trained and experienced school administrators.

¹⁴ Cook, *op. cit.*, p. 174.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 177.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 177.

As Cubberley observed long ago:

If rural people could only understand how much better schools they could have, often for the same money, if for the district system they substituted the county or some other even larger unit for administration, the district system would soon be placed where many other outgrown institutions of society now are.¹⁷

Most states now have laws permitting some form of school consolidation. In 1869, Massachusetts enacted legislation permitting the consolidation of school districts, and in 1882, finally abolished the district system by law and restored the old town system from which the district system had evolved. By 1890, the idea had spread to other states. In 1892, Ohio was the first state west of the Alleghenies to permit the union of two or more districts to form a consolidated school. Between 1897 and 1905, twenty states authorized the consolidation of schools. Meanwhile, other states operating under some form of the county-unit system began the work of consolidation. In 1934, Cubberley cited Colorado, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, and Texas as examples of states where good results had been achieved. He also cited California, Illinois, Kansas, Nebraska, Missouri, Oregon, and Wisconsin, as examples of states in which relatively little had been accomplished.¹⁸

Utah, Maryland, Ohio, and some of the Southern states have made great educational strides in their county-unit schools. Except in a few states, such as Utah, school consolidation has never been mandatory. Educators assumed that education was the solution to this and every other problem. Before his death Cubberley conceded that "voluntary consolidation is inadequate and too slow," and that "only by the use of a unit at least as large as the county can the right kind of consolidation and right type of school be provided, and this must be superimposed on the districts by general state law."¹⁹ He then went on to state,

With about four or five such consolidated schools to an average Middle-West county, instead of eighty to a hundred and twenty little insignificant schools, or something like four to five hundred such con-

¹⁷ Cubberley, *op. cit.*, p. 721.

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 722.

¹⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 724.

solidated schools to an average state instead of eight to twelve thousand little districts with their struggling little schools, the whole nature of rural life and education could be reshaped and redirected in a decade, and life on the farm and in the village would be given a new meaning. Such a change would also dispense with the need for the services of from 2,500 to 3,500 of the cheapest and most poorly educated rural teachers of the State, as well as some 24,000 to 36,000 district-school trustees—both of which would be educational gains of no small importance. In place of this army of school trustees, five citizens for each county, or about five hundred for a State, would manage much better than now all educational affairs of the rural and village schools.²⁰

Opposition to consolidation is still prevalent in many states. Many of the local trustees are among the most bitter enemies to proposed plans of reorganization. Obviously, if consolidation were to be realized, many trustees would be swept out of office, losing whatever prestige there is in the office and a small pittance of income. The usual argument is that the proposed consolidation is unwise, unnecessary, and injudicious, that it will complicate financial accountings, force debts upon the thrifty districts, and unfairly relieve spendthrifts of their debts. Usually the effect upon the children is dramatized: they will be forced to travel great distances to school in cold and inclement weather, they must leave the supervision of parents before sunup and return home after sundown, they must perform their chores in the dark and keep awake long hours. Nor is the likely effect on the local community minimized: the removal of the school will kill the community that is forced to transport children elsewhere, it will affect the sales of the local merchant or merchants, teach children "to look down" on their home towns. Consolidations will deprive the people of the direct control of their schools, teachers, and janitors. Although some of these arguments are more apparent than real, it must be admitted that occasionally one or more of the above arguments is valid. In this, as in every other matter, there are advantages and disadvantages. In the opinion of experts and of laymen who have tried it, consolidations outweigh disadvantages with advantages.

²⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 727.

The advantages of consolidation are too numerous for a complete inventory: it brings the graded school; it secures a better class of teachers; it assures better supervision; it brings better school houses, better furniture, apparatus and supplies; it results in more uniform methods of teaching and pupil progress in studies; it secures and maintains better records of the pupils and their progress; it dispenses with the interferences of many misguided school trustees; it establishes a more uniform rate of school taxation; it affords each child in the larger unit equal advantages; it prevents strife and contention over the operation of the isolated schools in small communities. It brings to rural children and rural communities educational services other than classroom instruction, such as health examinations and remedial activities, library opportunities, guidance programs, special programs for exceptional children, and school lunches. "Where each small district is an administrative unit going its own independent carefree way, these special educational services are usually prohibitive in cost and non-existent in rural communities. Only through larger administrative units, or close cooperation among the small units or schools can these services be economically and practically supplied."²¹

The White House Conference on Rural Education concluded that,

In most states there should be a fundamental reorganization of local administrative units for schools. The units must be made sufficiently large to afford educational opportunities through high school and to make available the administrative and specialized services required for a satisfactory educational program.

Schools should be consolidated wherever distances, topography and the best interests of the children and of community life will permit. Certainly there are thousands of small rural schools that ought to be consolidated with others.

If rural school units are to be reorganized, state laws must be enacted to facilitate such reorganization. Most state laws now are a hindrance rather than a help to this kind of improvement of rural schools.

²¹ Report of Group VIII, *White House Conference on Rural Education*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1944, p. 183.

State departments of education should begin immediately to plan the reorganization of local school units. Such plans should be worked out cooperatively with local school officials and lay leaders.²²

Conclusion

The American educational system is a misnomer—"there ain't no such animal." There are, as pointed out in an earlier chapter, as many varied state systems as there are states. Now, we learn, there are variations in the local machinery for school organization and maintenance. The town school, although it has influenced subsequent school organization elsewhere, is confined to New England. The county-school system, which originated in the South, varies from region to region. The county has become an effective intermediate unit for routine supervision and control in most states. In a few states the county-unit system signifies a well-integrated, consolidated school system. Unfortunately, too much education in the United States is dominated by the three-trustee district school. Until such time as we consolidate and integrate existing schools into larger administrative and supervisory units, American education will fall short of the ideal most Americans desire. The fight for an effective American school system, where the children of all states may receive an adequate twentieth-century education, has only begun.

STUDY AIDS

1. Locate a copy of the Massachusetts School Law of 1647, and report its provisions to the class. (See sourcebooks and textbooks on the history of American education.)
2. What is the origin of the typically American "district school"?
3. Why did the cities take the lead in the movement to consolidate schools?
4. Have the rural schools of your state been consolidated? Why, or why not?

²² *Ibid.*, p. 222.

5. Do you have the county-school system in your state? Why, or why not?
6. Do you know a county school official? What are his duties? his influence?
7. Should the county superintendent of schools be elected? at a partisan election? at a school election?
8. What are the arguments for consolidating the schools of a county or natural trade area?
9. What are the arguments against consolidating the schools of a county or natural trade area?
10. Has your state led or lagged in the consolidation movement? Why?
11. Debate the issue: Resolved, that the schools of _____ should be consolidated. (Insert the name of your county or natural trade area.)

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CHAPTER 11

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

Before the prospective teacher selects the level and type of educational service for which he wishes to prepare, he should understand the American school system. This chapter is intended to give him a brief survey of the American pattern of education, indicating the functions and services of the many schools therein. In part, the chapter is historical; however, an effort has been made to include only such historical data as are necessary for a clear comprehension of the relationships of the various school units.

Even though the prospective teacher has already made a choice of the type of school he will serve, he should know a great deal about all the other rungs in the American educational ladder—far more than we can give in this chapter. There is an interdependence between all levels of education. The first-grade children are better pupils if they have had kindergarten and nursery school experiences; the quality of the high-school work depends upon the teaching and learning of the elementary school; college and even graduate students reflect their high school and earlier training. And, on the other hand, no school at any level is any better than its teachers, administrators, and patrons, who in turn are products of the entire system. The familiar doggerel illustrates the point.

PASSING IT ON

The College President:

“Such rawness in a student is a shame
But lack of preparation is to blame.”

The High School Principal:

“Good heav’ns, what crudity! The boy’s a fool.
The fault, of course, is with the grammar school.”

The Grammar School Principal:

"Oh, that from such a dunce I might be spared!
They send them up to me so unprepared."

The Primary Principal:

"Poor kindergarten blockhead! And they call
that preparation! Worse than none at all."

The Kindergarten Teacher:

"Never such lack of training did I see.
What sort of person can the mother be!"

The Mother:

"You stupid child! But then you're not to blame
Your father's family are all the same."

The Nursery School

The lowest and newest rung in the American educational ladder is the nursery school. At present, both it and the next rung, the kindergarten, are skipped by most American students. As a matter of fact, until about 1920, only a few philanthropic organizations and universities operated nursery schools. During the great economic depression of the 'thirties, the Federal government fostered nursery schools, largely for the benefit of the underprivileged and underfed children of families on the relief rolls. The Federal Emergency Relief Act of 1933 provided funds for this purpose. Before the depression was over the United States was at war, and World War II resulted in the employment of millions of mothers in war industries. Federal emergency grants were made regularly by Congress during the war years for nursery schools for the children of war workers. Victory brought lessening interest and support for this innovation in American education. Nevertheless, it is potentially one of the most important schools in the American educational system.

Froebel, the founder of the kindergarten in 1816, may also be regarded as the originator of the nursery school. Froebel was especially interested in the education of the young child.

His concepts of childhood education, stripped of their mythical symbolism, still dominate such schools.

Twentieth century psychologists and mental hygiene clinicians must be given much of the credit for the establishment of the American nursery school. In recent years there has been widespread recognition of the importance of the pre-school years in child development. In many respects the early years are the crucial years; the physical development of a person, his mental habits, his emotional reactions, his traits of character, his "complexes," and his obsessions are deep-seated; and, in many instances, are traceable to his infancy and early childhood.

The objectives of a nursery school are numerous. First in importance is the education of young children. High on the list of functions is the education of parents, teachers, and research workers. Unquestionably, the more urgent, but less defensible motivation, has been relieving parents of the day-time care of their children. When these parents were war workers, there was ample justification for this role of the nursery school. The emancipation of women, and the ever-increasing employment of women as workers in business and industry, have been important reasons for the establishment of many nursery schools, particularly private schools.

The role of the nursery school as an educational institution is portrayed best by Dewey's dictum that "the primary root of all educational activity is in the instinctive impulsive attitudes and activities of the child." Stress is placed upon the development of motor and sensory control; social adjustment; the development of sustaining interests; and the physical development of the child, including habits of eating, sleeping, and elimination. The nursery school establishes the foundations of optimal health, growth, and development.

As yet, there has been no set curriculum, no crystallization of the nursery school program. In fact, here is the best example of the functional definition of a school curriculum as a set of experiences. Because of the absence of formalities, many nursery schools have been known as "play schools." Many Americans are still too near to early Calvinistic conceptions to appreciate the value of a play school. Unfortunately, much

of the undirected and misdirected play of the children in some so-called nursery schools is simply filling in time until mother gets home from work.

Ideally, the daily program of the tots from two to five years of age in the nursery school is variable. The only constants are the periods devoted to physical needs, such as rest, meals, and elimination. Ordinarily, the day begins with a health inspection; skin, eyes, throat, scalp, ears, and chest are inspected by a nurse or teacher. A period of out-door play in the sun and air, mid-morning lunch, a toilet period, and indoor play usually constitute the remainder of the morning program. If the child is to stay at school for the afternoon, lunch is followed by a nap, outdoor play, and a light lunch before leaving for home. Parents bring their children to school and come and get them; impromptu conferences are held at these times. Frequently, parents observe the play of children, as do prospective teachers and homemakers enrolled in colleges. Nursery school equipment includes educational toys and picture books, paints and easels, child-size bowls, towel racks, mirrors, and toilets. A piano is indispensable for the singing, musical games, and rhythmic dramatizations. Much of the effectiveness of the program depends upon the necessary educational equipment, as well as the provisions for cooking and serving luncheons and snacks, and the beds, cots, or rugs used for the rest periods.

Universities, colleges, private schools, philanthropic organizations, and the public schools maintain nursery schools. Rarely are nursery schools an integral part of the public school system. Universities and colleges maintain nursery schools largely in connection with teacher-training and home-making courses. Some universities maintain them primarily as research stations, such as the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station at the State University of Iowa; the Nursery School of Child Welfare Research at Teachers College, Columbia University; The Institute of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota, and The Guidance Nursery of the Yale University Psycho-Clinic, to name only a few of the better known research centers. Many private schools are operated largely as a convenience to parents who wish to be relieved of the day-time care of their children.

The Federal government was primarily interested in this aspect of the national employment problem incidental to World War II. Philanthropic organizations may maintain nursery schools for any or all of these reasons.

Unfortunately, few American children have had the privilege of attending nursery schools. Yet, according to some authorities, whether or not a student may be able to profit from college training may be determined by nursery-school training. In the next few decades we may expect great strides in the nursery school movement.

The Kindergarten

Friedrick Froebel (1782-1852) was the founder of the kindergarten. Although the school was originated in 1816, it was not called a *kindergarten* until 1840. When the Prussian government, fearing some revolutionary ideas in the new educational philosophy, closed the schools, the kindergarten idea was carried to England and, still later, to other countries. The first American kindergarten in the Froebelian pattern was established in Watertown, Wisconsin, in 1855, by Mrs. Carl Schurz, a pupil of Froebel. Before 1860, kindergartens were established in a dozen other German-speaking communities. The first English-speaking kindergarten was opened in Boston, in 1860, by Miss Elizabeth Peabody. In 1862, Madam Matilde Kriege, a new arrival from Germany, started a teacher-training course for kindergarteners at Boston. In 1872, Miss Susan Blow accepted the invitation of Superintendent William T. Harris of St. Louis and opened the first public school kindergarten in the United States. By 1880, some three hundred kindergartens and ten kindergarten training centers, mostly private ventures, were operating in the United States. Around 1890, the kindergarten movement was largely centered in the public school systems.

In this manner another rung, the initial one in many systems, was added to the American educational ladder. However, the movement has been restricted largely to city school systems and private schools. Less than a million four- and five-year old

pupils are now enrolled in the kindergarten; the great majority of American children never attend a kindergarten.

Two forces have tended to retard the establishment of kindergartens. The first is the misunderstanding regarding its important educational role. The second is the fact that the kindergarten must compete with other schools for public support. At a time when secondary school enrollments were on the march, the kindergarten movement was held in check. Since then, we have had a world war, a great economic depression, and a second world war. Also, kindergarten features are now included in any well conducted primary school.

The philosophy of the kindergarten movement has permeated other levels of the American educational system. "Self-activity," "creativity," "motor-activity," "self-expression," "self-realization," and "learning by doing" have a familiar ring to all educational workers. Although these concepts are as old as Jean-Jacques Rousseau (his *Emile* was published in 1762), Froebel is given credit for putting them into practice. John Dewey (1859—), America's most eminent educational philosopher and the popularizer of the "learning-by-doing" concept, has said that he organized his famous University of Chicago experimental school "to carry into effect certain principles which Froebel was perhaps the first consciously to set forth." Although Froebel's teachings have been stripped by Dewey and others of much of their mystical symbolism, they are still beacon lights.

In speaking of the kindergarten, Cubberley aptly said, "Individual development as its aim, motor expression as its method, and social cooperation as its means were the characteristic ideas of this new school for little children."¹ Good habits, acceptable social behavior, and physical well-being are its goals. It sets out to inculcate right habits and attitudes, to socialize the individual so that he may become a member of a cooperative group and it extends the experience of the child in "a happy, colorful, and joyous environment, where children may really live together." It is maintained that, "To learn a thing in life

¹ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934, p. 459.

through doing is much more developing, cultivating, and strengthening than to learn it merely through the verbal communication of ideas."

The kindergarten program is flexible and varies from school to school. A typical day would include the greetings of the teacher on the arrival of the boys and girls at school, learning how to take off and take care of wraps; a period of free activities—natural but directed self-activity; a conversation period during which the activities are planned; a work period of worthwhile activities—using carpenters' benches and tools, paints and easels, playhouses, dolls, furniture, housekeeping utensils, sand tables, swings, seesaws, slides, games, and toys; a story period, when the teacher tells and reads stories and the children retell and create stories and relate their own experiences; lunch; a rest period, using cots or rugs; a music period involving group and individual singing, listening to piano or records, playing rhythmic games; a period of outdoor play—running, skipping, jumping, playing in the Junglegym. Actually, without realizing it, the children are introduced to the experiences that lead to, and frequently involve nature study, geography, language, numbers, reading, music, art, and physical education.

The kindergarten movement has been a partial disappointment to many American educators. Actually, while only a minority of American school pupils attend kindergarten, the kindergarten movement has had a great influence in the primary grade work, which affects all American school pupils. Undoubtedly, kindergarten experiences should be extended to all American pupils. But, as we know, many American pupils are attending one-teacher rural schools and will continue to do so for many years to come. Also, it can be argued that the rural child does not need kindergarten experiences as badly as does the more artificially reared city youngster.

Elementary Education

For most Americans "elementary education" means the school work of grades I to VIII, inclusive. In recent years, as

will be pointed out in the next section, it means the work of grades I to VI, inclusive. Frequently, elementary education is referred to as the work of "the common school." Here, "common school" refers to the school experiences to which all children are supposed to be subjected, or to that part or type of education common to all. Functionally, elementary education in the United States refers to those skills, attitudes, ideals, and insights necessary for a person who is to live in the American environment. It is "the common denominator of life for the whole nation." It not only has to do with the cultural heritage that should be the common possession of all, but it is the starting point for such improvement as can be made by each generation.²

In view of its recognized importance, it is difficult to understand the slow development and acceptance of elementary education in America. A reminder that the earliest concepts of the role of education in the Colonies were importations from abroad, will help. For a time all education in America was regarded in the traditional European patterns; education was the primary concern of the church or the parents or both, but not of the public. The influence of the church upon elementary education can scarcely be overestimated. In fact, the vernacular school, designed to enable the individual to study the Holy Scriptures for himself, and the forerunner of the common school, was a product of the Reformation. The early American settlers, accustomed as they were in the mother countries to church schools, advocated similar support for the colonial schools. Moreover, the colonists readily accepted the idea that the family was responsible for the education of its members. According to Continental patterns, free schools were only for paupers who could not afford something better.

These traditional motivations are exhibited in the earliest colonial law concerning education. The Massachusetts law of 1642 charged the town councilmen "to take account from time to time of their parents and masters and of their children, especially of their ability to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of the country, and to impose fines on all

² For a supplementary and more technical treatment of the topic, see John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, Ch. 6.

those who refuse to render such accounts to them when required."

The famous Massachusetts Law of 1647, known as "The old deluder, Satan, Act," reveals the same church influence. In modernized spelling, an excerpt follows:

It being one chief object of that old deluder, Satan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, as in former times by keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these latter times by persuading from the use of tongues, that so at least the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded by false glosses of saint-seeming deceivers, that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers in the church and Commonwealth, the Lord assisting our endeavors,...

It therefore ordered that towns of fifty "householders" appoint one within their town "to teach all such children as shall resort to him to write and read" and that towns of one hundred families shall set up a school to fit youth for the university.

These laws, 1642 and 1647, are the beginning of the free American public school system. However, it took many generations to bring the American public school within the reach of all concerned. As Cubberley has ably pointed out,³ there are seven strategic points in the struggle for free, tax-supported, non-sectarian, state controlled schools, as follows:

1. The battle for tax support.
2. The battle to eliminate the pauper-school idea.
3. The battle to make the schools entirely free.
4. The battle to establish state supervision.
5. The battle to eliminate sectarianism.
6. The battle to extend the system upward.
7. Addition of the state university to crown the system.

The first state to adopt free education was Pennsylvania in 1834. Other leaders were Wisconsin and Rhode Island (1848), Indiana and Ohio (1853), Illinois (1855), Kansas (1861), Vermont (1864), New York (1871), Connecticut (1868), Michigan (1869), and New Jersey (1871). Soon the practice was commonplace.

The first state to secularize its schools by legal provision

³ Cubberley, *op. cit.*, pp. 177f.

(that is, to free them from sectarian or denominational influence) was New Hampshire in 1792. Other leaders were Connecticut (1818), New Jersey (1844), and Massachusetts (1855). After the latter date the practice became universal.

Another deterrent to the satisfactory development of elementary education in America was the ungraded district school. In 1839, Henry Barnard noted that "there was hardly an instance of the gradation of schools (in Connecticut) by which the evils of crowding children of different ages, of both sexes, in every variety of study and schoolbook, under a single teacher, were avoided."⁴

The practice of providing but one school for as many children as could be gathered in from a given territory was almost universal in rural America until 1890. Obviously, under such conditions elementary education had to do only with the barest essentials—the three r's: reading, writing, and arithmetic—and spelling. In time, grammar, geography, and music were added. A single teacher had a most difficult time teaching so many children at so many levels of achievement the rudiments of an education. The solution to this vexing problem, as pointed up in the preceding chapter, was the graded school, first in the cities, and then in the country.

The American graded school cannot be said to be indigenous, although some authorities have claimed that it is. As early as 1790, the Prussians had a graded *volksschule*, a school for the common people. A Frenchman, Victor Cousin, wrote his *Report on the State of Public Instruction in Prussia* in 1831. By 1834, it was circulated in America and elsewhere in an English translation. Calvin E. Stowe of Cincinnati, Ohio, visited the Prussian schools in 1836, and reported to the Ohio legislature in his *Report on Elementary Education in Europe in 1837*. In time, Cousin's report was almost as influential in America as it had been in France, where it resulted in the establishment of a modern state school in 1833. The Ohio legislature ordered ten thousand copies of Stowe's report, and one copy was sent to every school district in the state. Later,

⁴ *American Journal of Education* 19:475 (1839).

by vote of the legislatures of Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Michigan, North Carolina, and Virginia, it was ordered reprinted and circulated. Henry Barnard made trips to Europe in the period 1835-37, and in 1843, Horace Mann visited schools in Great Britain, Belgium, Holland, Germany, and France. Barnard's writings of the next forty years and Mann's writings, particularly the famous *Seventh Report*, popularized the graded Prussian *volksschule* in the mind of the American educator.

In commenting on these observations by travelers and official reports, Cubberley said,

In particular they gave support to the movement, already well under way, to organize the many school systems into state school systems, subjecting them to state oversight and control; further stimulated the movement, already well begun, to grade and classify the schools in a more satisfactory manner, and to reduce class size to a more workable unit. . . .

However, Cubberley believes that we did not adopt the German *volksschule*. He says,

Not only did we not adopt its curriculum, or spirit, or method of instruction, but we did not adopt even the Prussian graded system. The *Volksschule* is a definite eight-year school, an end in itself and leading to the continuation school, while we worked out and have ever since retained seven-year, eight-year, and nine-year elementary schools in different parts of the United States, each one leading directly to the secondary school above. That the elementary school we developed was in general an eight-year school, as in the German *Volksschule*, was due to the school age of children and to a perfectly natural native development, rather than to any copying of foreign models. Our own development had been proceeding naturally and steadily toward the lines we eventually followed, long before we knew of Prussian work. The great thing we got from the study of Prussian schools was not a borrowing or imitation of any part or feature, but rather a marked stimulus to a further and faster development along lines which were already well under way. Even the better grading of pupils in smaller class groups as described by Mann and put into effect first by Philbrick of the Quincy School in Boston, was but a "next step" in a purely native development.⁵

⁵ Cubberley, *op. cit.*, p. 366.

Be that as it may, except in New England, where a nine-grade school is common, and the South, where a seven-grade school is the rule, we had for many years a standard eight-year common school. Although challenged as to length before it was commonly accepted, it has persisted in many quarters, especially in rural areas, to this very day.

In educational literature frequent reference is made to the report of the Commission on the Articulation of the Units of American Education of the NEA Department of Superintendents for the following statement of the tentative objectives of the American elementary school.

Any proper respect for the rights of the child and the welfare of the community dictates that during this elementary school period education shall:

1. Advance the child, although by no means perfect him, in his ability to read, write, and speak correctly the English language, and to know and to use intelligently the elementary processes of arithmetic. . . .

2. Advance the child in his ability to know and to observe the laws of physical and mental health and well-being and to appreciate the meaning of life and of nature. . . .

3. Advance the child in his ability to know and to appreciate the geography and history of his own community—state, and nation, and of the world at large; to sense his share in the social, civic, and industrial order of such a democracy as ours, and to meet to the fullest the obligations which such knowledge and appreciation should engender, to the end that justice, sympathy, and loyalty may characterize his personal and community life. . . .

4. Advance the child in his ability to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and the useful arts through the pursuit of music, drawing, and literature; of manual training and the household arts as they are related to the three great universal needs of food, clothing, and shelter. . . .⁶

American elementary schools go about the accomplishment of these objectives in various ways. The more formal schools stress the skills and subject-matter, *per se*. On the other extreme, the so-called “progressive schools” stress the skills as

⁶ *Seventh Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1929, p. 82.

tools for solving problems and acquiring insight into contemporary concerns. The former may be called "teacher-centered schools," and the latter "child-centered" schools. Somewhere in between these two extremes lie the vast majority of American elementary schools. Of this controversy between "essentialists" and "progressives," we shall learn more later.

Secondary Education ⁷

The American high school is a unique institution. No one has had the temerity to suggest that it has a European model, although this can be said of its predecessors, the American Latin School and the Academy. The claim has been made, but not proved, that the American elementary school was copied from the German *volksschule*. There is no question about the fact that our colonial colleges were typical of the European institutions of their day. The high school, however, is a characteristically American institution, wedged in between the democratic common school and the aristocratic institutions of higher learning. It is a continuation of the elementary school, democratic in organization and offerings; it is free of charge and tax-supported, and it offers a great variety of courses of interest to the 7,000,000 youths of varying abilities and different temperaments who attend. Enrolling approximately 70 per cent of American youth, it presents a nice contrast to the European secondary school, which at the end of World War II, was still restricted to less than ten per cent of European youth, who represented the intelligentsia and the upper social and economic castes.

The American high school reflects, at its best, the American dream. It is bedded in idealism—the perfectibility of man, his capacity for progress, his right to the opportunities of self-realization. It is the American road to culture; although its graduates may go into many different walks of life, here they live democratically together, attend the same assemblies, dances, and athletic contests, hear the same music and musical organiza-

⁷ For a supplementary and more technical treatment of this topic, see John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*, New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, Ch. 7.

tions, read and discuss the same classics, work side by side in the same laboratories, and, in general, have the same or similar experiences. It distinguishes American life from life in other countries more than any other single institution.

Its responsibilities are as broad as life itself. Its recognized objectives include: (1) health, (2) command of the fundamental processes, (3) worthy home membership, (4) vocational preparation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, and (7) ethical character.⁸ Still in the process of evolution, the American high school's responsibilities and opportunities change from day to day. The high school we know best is in the stage of transition and development. If the past is indicative of the future, we will hardly recognize the high school of tomorrow.⁹

The Latin Grammar School

The American high school has a long history; it is now over three hundred years old. The Boston Latin Grammar School, America's first secondary school, was started in 1635. At this stage it was not an American institution; it was simply a reproduction of the Latin Grammar School the Puritans had known in Europe, especially as it existed in England. By the Massachusetts Law of 1647, that famous "old deluder, Satan" Act, each town of one hundred families had the responsibility of maintaining a grammar school, "the master thereof being able to instruct youth so far as they may be fitted for the university." Thus, the earliest secondary school in America was a preparatory school for boys who wished to study at Harvard University for the ministry or offices of state. Some authorities have said it was, for this reason, a vocational school, and that Latin and Greek—its subjects of stress, which were later to be imbedded in tradition and so become a barrier to change in the secondary school curriculum—were really vocational subjects.

In a short time the Latin Grammar school had spread throughout New England. By 1700, nearly all of the thirteen

⁸ *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, Washington, D. C., 1922, p. 5.

⁹ See *Education for All American Youth*, Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C., 1944.

colonies had such schools; there was a total of forty of these schools in America on this date. Despite the widespread recognition of the need for a secondary school, the Latin Grammar school soon fell into disrepute. This typically European institution did not fit well into the new American scene. It was an exclusive, snobbish, undemocratic school, and its curriculum, especially its disregard of science and mathematics, did not contribute much to life on the American frontier.

The Academy

In time, the critics of the Latin grammar school found a champion in that first great American, Benjamin Franklin. However, Franklin got his ideas regarding the Academy from the academies already functioning in Europe. In his *Proposals Relating to the Education of Youth in Pennsylvania*, issued in 1749, he expressed the need for a new American school with an expanded curriculum. The following excerpt is frequently quoted in educational literature:

As to their studies, it would be well if they could be taught *everything* that is useful, and *everything* that is ornamental. But art is long and their time is short. It is, therefore, proposed that they learn those things that are likely to be the *most useful* and *most ornamental*; regard being had for the several professions for which they are intended. All interested in divinity should be taught the Latin and Greek; for physics, the Latin, Greek, and French; for law, the Latin and French; merchants, the French, German, and Spanish; and, though all should not be compelled to learn Latin, Greek, or the modern foreign languages, yet none that have an ardent desire to learn them should be refused; their English, arithmetic, and other studies absolutely necessary, being at the same time not neglected.

Franklin's Academy in Philadelphia, soon to be the model for many another, had three departments, the Latin School, the English School, and the Mathematical School. These latter courses of instruction opened the way to a number of subjects having value aside from preparation for college, particularly "the study of real things rather than words about things." The following subjects were first introduced at the secondary

school level by academies: algebra, astronomy, botany, chemistry, general history, United States history, English literature, surveying, philosophy, declamation, and debating. In time, the academies offered two parallel courses, a classical course, intended to prepare for college, and an English course, intended to prepare for the ordinary affairs of life. Moreover, this latter curriculum was built upon, instead of running parallel to, the common school course. Thus, the academy became the forerunner for the democratic American high school of today. It is because of this service of the Academy that we have "an American educational ladder" which all may climb rung by rung.

Because of the appeal of its practical courses, the Academy soon became widespread. By 1830, there were about 1,000 academies in the United States, and by 1850, near the time of its zenith, there were over 6,000 institutions, enrolling over 260,000 pupils, employing over 12,200 teachers, and expending over \$85,000,000 annually. Although many of the academies were private ventures, in time many became semi-public in support and maintenance, and a few were public institutions.

The academy has many things to its credit. It first popularized secondary education in America; it broadened the curriculum to include many practical and scientific subjects; it became in time and in spots a coeducational school; it introduced so-called normal training, e.g., teacher-training; and above all, it was the forerunner of the public high school.

Nevertheless, the two curricula could not stand side by side without one overshadowing the other, and the classical curriculum had all the advantages of tradition and inertia. Unfortunately, it won, and many of the academies reverted to type. If we wish to know what became of some of the early academies, we have only to look in current issues of our most exclusive magazines and examine the roster of schools purchasing advertising space to attract college-preparatory students.

The Public High School

Although many factors contributed to the creation of the public high school, the service of the Academy in popularizing

secondary education should not be minimized. Another important factor was the growth of American cities, and the subsequent increase in the number of potential students near a school, as well as the demands of the new city industries and businesses for workers who knew more than could be taught in the elementary school. Also, the increase in the number of colleges and the new state university movement encouraged more students to attend secondary schools. By that time the democratic spirit was at work, and the public was demanding secondary school instruction for the poor as well as the rich in one common public school.

These demands were first met at Boston, Massachusetts, by the establishment of a public high school in 1821. First known as the "English Classical School," in 1824 it became the "English High School." Even here the name, but not the school, seems to have been a European importation—there was a high school at Edinburgh, Scotland. In the committee report, it was said, "A parent who wishes to give a child an education that shall fit him for active life, and shall serve as a foundation for eminence in his profession, whether mercantile or mechanical, is under the necessity of giving him a different education from any which our public schools can now furnish." To correct this situation, the American high school was born.

The Massachusetts Law of 1827, stipulated that each city, town, or district, containing five hundred families or householders should employ "a master of good morals, competent to instruct . . . the history of the United States, bookkeeping by single entry, geometry, surveying, and algebra." Also, in every city or town containing four thousand inhabitants, "such master shall be competent, in addition to all the foregoing branches, to instruct the Latin and Greek languages, history, rhetoric, and logic."

The high school spread rapidly. By 1840, there were over a score of schools; by 1850, about fifty; by 1860, about one hundred; and, by 1870, over one hundred and sixty. Meantime, several states had state laws on the subject: Iowa (1848), New York (1853), Ohio (1853), Illinois (1855), Michigan (1859), and Indiana (1867).

The big increase in the number of high schools was brought about by a court decision in the Kalamazoo Case, 1874. In this case, the right to tax for the purpose of maintaining a high school was established. In rendering the decision, Justice Cooley said, in reviewing the history of education in Michigan, "We content ourselves with the statement that neither in our state policy, in our constitution, or in our laws, do we find the primary school districts restricted in the branches of knowledge which their officers may cause to be taught, or the grade of instruction that may be given, if the voters consent in regular form to bear the expense and raise the taxes for the purpose."

As a result, the public high school soon outstripped the academies in number and importance. In 1880, there were 800 high schools; in 1890, there were 2,500; by 1900, the high schools were as numerous as the academies of 1850, over 6,000; by 1910, the number had almost doubled, over 10,000; by 1920, there were 15,000; and, in 1930, there were about 25,000 free, public-supported high schools in the United States.

The sudden upsurges in enrollment are revealed in the following figures:

Year	Schools	Teachers	Pupils
1890	2,526	9,120	202,903
1900	6,005	20,372	695,903
1910	10,213	41,667	1,111,393
1920	14,326	97,654	2,495,676
1930	23,930	213,306	4,799,867
1940	24,467 *	278,459 *	6,601,444

* 1938.

The Junior High School

The junior high school is a subdivision of the American secondary school. Although the majority of American high schools are of the four-year variety, more than a majority of the students attend junior high schools before enrolling in the three-year senior high schools.

The high school had hardly arrived at its position as the dominant American institution of secondary learning before it came under attack. President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard, in

addresses before the Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association in 1888 and 1892, expressed the thought that the American elementary school could be both shortened and enriched. He wished to shorten the time devoted to the so-called drill subjects and add new and more advanced studies in the upper grades and have these subjects taught by specialized teachers. He was concerned about the late date at which American boys began their professional studies.

Two important committees, appointed to investigate this proposal for shortening the elementary school and lengthening the secondary school, made favorable reports in the nineties—the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Subjects, reporting in 1893, and the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, reporting in 1899. Subsequently, these early reports favoring “the 6-6 plan,” i.e., six years of elementary education and six years of secondary education, were followed by numerous reports suggesting that the secondary school be divided into two separate three-year institutions, to be known as the junior high school and the senior high school—“the 6-3-3 plan.”

There is considerable disagreement regarding the claims of schools to the honor of being the first junior high school. However, it is generally conceded that there were some three-year institutions in the nineties. But the first junior high schools of “the 6-3-3 plan” were those at Columbus, Ohio; Berkeley, California; Concord, New Hampshire; and Los Angeles, California, all before 1911.

The movement spread very rapidly; in fact, that was the era of great expansion in secondary school enrollment. One easy solution to the problem was to divide the overcrowded high school into two schools, and to place either the junior or the senior high school in a new building. There were over 1,500 junior high schools in 1928.

The junior high school, according to its proponents, was to serve several purposes. First, it was to bridge the gap between the elementary school and the high school proper by introducing the students gradually to new subjects taught by specialists. The junior high school teacher was presumed to be a master at articulating the work of the new unit to what had preceded in

the same areas of study in the elementary school, and—what was equally important—articulating the work of the new unit in the various areas of study to the work that was to follow in the senior high schools. This involved a greatly enriched program in the seventh and eighth grades, and a new approach to much of the traditional work of the ninth grade, heretofore the first year of high school.

Moreover, it involved an adequate guidance program, so that the aptitudes, abilities, and interests of the junior high school pupil were clearly revealed, and made the bases for the choices in curricula of specialization in the senior high school. The junior high school, consequently, stressed exploratory and pre-vocational courses: general science, general language, junior business training, industrial arts, and shop work, not so much for the vocational training proper (although there was some of that for the over-age pupil) as for the purpose of supplying experiences upon which pupils and counselors could reach wise decisions regarding future studies.

Retardation and elimination were the curses of the traditional elementary school, particularly in the drill years of the seventh and eighth grades. The junior high school advocates advised the teachers to promote the over-age, backward boys and girls into the new school where they could have the challenge of a new environment, laboratories, student-body activities, plus pre-vocational, and occasionally vocational, experiences. As a result, the holding power of the school system was improved and, as the years passed by, fewer and fewer pupils were eliminated from school before they reached the customary compulsory school age upper limit of sixteen years.

The Junior College

As Eells has cleverly observed, the junior college has come about in four ways: (1) high school elongation, stretching the high school two years; (2) university amputation—cutting the feet off the traditional university, thus freeing it to do research and professional work; (3) college decapitation—cutting the last two years off the offering of the small college, thus making

it an even better institution; and, (4) independent creation.¹⁰

High school elongation was a natural step. Earlier in the 'nineties the University of Michigan and other institutions of higher learning were accepting one year of college work done by the stronger high schools. Excess credits in such subjects as Latin, advanced algebra, trigonometry, English, and history were frequently converted into college hours.

Many of the high schools that first added postgraduate work, as it was commonly called, early evolved into junior colleges. This was true at Joliet, Illinois, commonly conceded to have been the first public junior college in America (1902). This was also the case in Fresno, California, where the great junior college system of California originated in 1911. Large cities without public institutions of higher learning were among the first to stress postgraduate secondary school work and, in time, to establish separate junior colleges. Crane and Lane high schools in Chicago offered junior college work in 1911; Kansas City, Missouri, and Detroit, Michigan, followed suit in 1915. In Iowa and other plains states junior college work is frequently carried on in the local high schools.

At the present writing there are approximately six hundred junior colleges in the United States, enrolling approximately one-third of a million students each year. Slightly less than one-half of this number are publicly controlled institutions, and slightly more than one-half are under private control. The publicly controlled institutions, however, have much the greater proportion of the enrollment. Roughly three-fourths of the junior college students are attending public institutions and one-fourth attend the numerous small, private schools. Moreover, the trend is definitely in favor of the larger, publicly controlled institutions. Nevertheless, the privately controlled schools enroll more and more students each year.

California leads in the junior college movement, both in the total number of schools and the student enrollment. In fact, about half of the junior college students of the country are in California, mostly in the large public junior colleges. These

¹⁰ Walter Crosby Eells, *The Junior College*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931, Ch. III.

schools average almost 3,000 students per school. However, in the war years three-fourths of the California enrollment consisted of special students, principally adults enrolled in evening courses. These special students were a measure of the degree to which the junior college met the problems of the war emergency by training war workers. Los Angeles City College enrolls over 10,000 students. Other outstanding states in the junior college movement are Texas, Illinois, Wyoming, Utah, and Mississippi.¹¹

In recent years, some junior colleges have expanded into four-year colleges, enrolling the usual high school juniors and seniors—"the 6-4-4 plan." Such an organization is extremely economical in costs of buildings (gymnasiums, auditoriums, libraries, laboratories, etc.) and in administration, for two administrators and their office forces do the work of three. Moreover, two shifts instead of three is a better setup for guidance, because the students stay under the same supervision one year longer. There are also better opportunities to evolve sounder curricula.

Many reasons are given for the establishment of junior colleges. It is said that the local junior college keeps students in their home communities at little expense and under home influence for two additional years. It is frequently claimed that junior college students have more opportunity for direct contact with faculty and students than is possible in larger schools. There is no question but that the junior college does bring two additional years of schooling into the lives of many students who could or would not go away from their home towns to attend institutions elsewhere. Also, it cannot be denied that junior colleges enrich the lives of all concerned, youth and adult, in the communities in which they are established.

Aside from duplicating the first two years of college work, a junior college has a responsibility for terminal courses, both vocational and cultural. There are numerous vocations and semi-professions that students can prepare for in less than the traditional four-year college course. Also, there are many lines

¹¹ Each year Walter C. Eells has an article on the status of the junior college in the United States in *School and Society*.

of work that do not appeal to the academic mind, although they employ great numbers of workers at very lucrative salaries and afford opportunities for fortune seekers. Many of these fields are now found in the offerings of junior colleges: catering for profit, laundry operation, photography, journalism, radio, etc.

There is every reason to believe that the public junior college movement has just begun. A North Carolina Supreme Court decision, regarding the right of the board of education to institute junior college work in the schools of Asheville, will likely assume the importance in the junior college movement of the twentieth century that the Kalamazoo Case did in the high school movement of the nineteenth century. This decision established the right of a board of education to establish, maintain, and operate a junior college as a part of the public school system.

Higher Education ¹²

The first colleges founded in America were English-type colleges. Our first colleges, as well as our first secondary schools, were importations from abroad; the English collegiate traditions were simply brought to the shores of the new world. The first college, Harvard (founded in 1636, in the Massachusetts Bay Colony) was a clear copy of Magdalene College, Cambridge University, England. It was established because of a "dread to leave an illiterate ministry to the churches when our present ministers shall lie in the dust."

Practically all the early American Colleges (William and Mary, 1693; Yale, 1701; Princeton, 1746; Brown, 1764; Rutgers, 1766; Dartmouth, 1769, etc.) were founded by some church. The University of Pennsylvania, 1749, and King's College (Columbia), 1754, were the first schools to be founded as civil institutions, and the first to state openly that there was no intention to impose upon the students the tenets of any particular sect. These early schools centered the college program on mental discipline and intellectual culture, where it

¹² For a more technical treatment of the topic, see John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*, New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, Ch. 8.

stayed for a century and a half. Nor can it be said that they have entirely deserted this position. Even now, these older, endowed universities exert great influence on American higher education, particularly in the East.¹³

The colleges established prior to 1800 were all small colleges. In fact, in 1800, the twenty-four colleges then in existence enrolled not more than two thousand students, had fewer than one hundred professors, and had properties valued at less than \$1,000,000.

Obviously, in time these traditional schools did not meet the needs of a growing nation. The final outcome was the creation of state universities in all the new, and in most of the older states. The famous Northwest Ordinance of 1787 referred to in an earlier chapter, included a grant of two whole townships "for the purposes of a university." Later, another township was added to the endowment of the state universities of Ohio—Ohio University at Athens, and Miami University at Oxford. This practice of granting two or more townships of land for a state university was continued with the admission of each new state. However, few state universities were established before 1870. The Federal land grants to state universities exceed one million acres.

Meanwhile, in the older states of the East, great numbers of denominational colleges were established. Much of this movement was due to the decision in the Dartmouth Case. In New Hampshire, as elsewhere in the states, there was some dissatisfaction on the part of many citizens with their endowed colleges. Dartmouth was thought by some to be aristocratic in tendency and to devote itself too exclusively to the needs of a segment of the population. Accordingly, the legislature of New Hampshire tried to transform Dartmouth College into a state institution. The act was first contested in the state courts and finally carried to the United States Supreme Court, where Daniel Webster made an able and an eloquent plea for the College. The Court ruled, in 1819, that the charter of a college was a contract which the legislature could not impair.

¹³ See the Report of the Harvard Committee, *Education in a Free Society*, Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945.

As a result, denominational colleges appeared in the settled country; Amherst, 1821, in Massachusetts; Lafayette, 1826, and Haverford, 1830, in Pennsylvania; Western Reserve, 1826, and Oberlin, 1833, in Ohio; Wesleyan, 1831, in Connecticut; Rochester, 1851, in New York; and Northwestern, 1855, in Illinois—to name only a few. The period between 1820 and 1880 has been called “the great period of denominational effort.” By 1860, the states east of the Mississippi were dotted with denominational colleges, and by 1880, they covered the entire country. A total of over five hundred American colleges and universities have religious origins.

The Dartmouth Case decision also spurred the establishment of state universities. Since the states could not change the character of the denominational colleges, they began to create their own institutions. Virginia created its own university the same year as the Dartmouth decision. Other early state universities were started in North Carolina, Tennessee, Alabama, Michigan, Vermont, Wisconsin, Missouri, Mississippi, Iowa, and Florida. Today all “new” states and some of the “original” states have state universities.

As time has gone on, the character of many of the private and denominational institutions has changed so markedly that it is difficult to distinguish them from the public institutions. In part, this is due to the spirit of the times in which we live. It is also due to the public responsibility that many so-called private schools assume, in preparing men and women for the many professions legalized and regulated by the various states.

The land-grant colleges are worthy of special mention. In 1862, Congress passed a bill sponsored by Justin P. Morrill of Vermont, making a grant of 30,000 acres of public land to each state for each senator and representative the state had in Congress, for the purpose of publicly endowing a college of agriculture and mechanic arts. Inasmuch as these schools are empowered “without excluding *other scientific and classical studies*, and including military tactics, to teach such branches of learning as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts in such manner as the legislatures of the states may respectively prescribe, in order to promote the *liberal* and practical education

of the industrial classes, in the several pursuits and professions of life,"¹⁴ it is difficult to distinguish between many of these land-grant colleges and the state universities. For example, how many readers realize that Ohio State University at Columbus is the land-grant college and Ohio University at Athens is a state university? A total of 11,367,832 acres of public land has been given by the Federal government for the endowment of these new schools. All states and territories maintain such schools. However, eighteen states added the land grant to the endowment of their existing state universities and combined the two institutions. Also, three of the original states gave the grant to private institutions already well established and recognized in the states.

Until the end of World War II, higher education did not attract a large percentage of the youth of college age. In the typical state in 1940, only about one person in every eight attended college. The so-called "G.I. Bill of Rights" has changed this. In contrast to the 1,000,000 students enrolled in our higher institutions in 1940, at the present writing over 3,000,000 veterans of World War II are seeking admittance in American colleges and universities, and already the college enrollment has doubled in size in most institutions of the land.

It now appears that the day may soon come when every deserving young man or woman can have a higher education. If so, the society of the future will have services of the best minds in the country, in the professions and in the research laboratories and studies. When this day comes American youth can climb the American educational ladder, rung by rung, from nursery to graduate school.

Next Steps in American School Organization

The American school system has not jelled; there will continue to be innovations for many years to come. The most likely next step will be the establishment of a new school in the better communities to assume the functions of the nursery school, the kindergarten, and the first two or three years of

¹⁴ (*Italics mine.*)

elementary education. It is now generally thought that the younger children can be better served by a small, especially designed and staffed neighborhood school.

In the event that a new primary school for infants is evolved, the elementary school will consist of the intermediate grades. Here the stress will be put upon the fundamental processes—reading, writing, arithmetic, etc. However, it is unlikely that these subjects will be taught in a vacuum devoid of pupil activity. In all probability, children will continue to learn by doing and the skills will be taught as tools. “Progressive education,” at least in its better interpretation, is here to stay.

The junior high school, the senior high school, and the junior college will, no doubt, continue to be popular organizations for secondary education in urban areas and large consolidated rural schools. However, in many areas and in cities, we may expect other combinations of secondary school grades.

The 6-4-4 plan has many advantages. Some few junior colleges, especially public schools in California cities and private boarding schools everywhere, are now organized as four-year schools. Under the leadership of Chancellor R. M. Hutchins, the University of Chicago is combining grades eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen, and conferring the traditional baccalaureate degrees upon the graduates of this new “college.”

In the opinion of an increasing number of educators, the period of secondary education can be reduced to six years. In contrast to the policies of certain European school systems, they say, we have been spending too much time on secondary education in America. Other educators concede that we may reduce the time required for the gifted to complete secondary education, but are mindful of the fact that the American secondary school, serving as it does almost all American youth, is our most unique institution. The time devoted to secondary education, even for the intellectual elite, will not be contracted without a struggle.

Whether the American university can continue to serve the increasing numbers and variety of students who seek entrance is a question. Probably America's greatest need is for tech-

nological and semi-professional institutes designed to serve the masses of students who are not academically minded. Unquestionably, the junior college and other functional schools will cover the nation in the near future.

The G.I. Bill of Rights has focused attention, as never before, upon vocational education. In all probability, some form of work experience will become a part of the educational experience of more and more high school students and of more and more so-called college students. In fact, off-campus educational experiences offer a fertile field for educational exploration, experimentation, and research.

Conclusion

The American educational system is more or less unique. It is unique in the sense that any youth is free to climb the American educational ladder, rung by rung, as high as his abilities and, sad to say, his finances will permit. The veterans of World War II are getting a type of financial assistance that, when applied to all American youth, may in time make the American school system democratic at all levels.

In general, it can be said that we have already realized the democratic goal at both the elementary and secondary school levels. However, certain individuals are still handicapped by the inability to attend school at either end of the American educational ladder. Nursery schools and kindergartens are largely restricted to the more fortunate children, the sons and daughters of the well-to-do, to the poor, and to the inhabitants of the better communities or the emergency settlements. The great majority of the children of the middle class and the average community do not have the opportunity of attending these early schools. Furthermore, as has been pointed out, until the G.I. Bill of Rights was enacted, higher education was restricted to students who had made good secondary school records, and to the more well-to-do. Of course, the more gifted and determined student has always been able to work his way through college or professional school. And, in recent years, under the leadership of Harvard University and the University of Chicago, many

private schools are attracting more and more gifted students with stipends that enable them to devote full time to their studies. Nevertheless, at this writing there is unquestionably, in every state in the nation, a group of young persons not in college who are equally as capable as the group enrolled. Moreover, the gifted not attending school are just as numerous as those who are. Sometime, America will bring higher education within the reach of all deserving American youth.

Many of the troubles of education in America are due to the fact that the American school system, like Topsy, "just grew." As has been pointed out, the colleges originated first and the elementary schools last of all; the secondary schools were wedged in between them, more or less as an afterthought. The junior high school and the junior college, among the latest innovations, were designed to lessen the lack of coordination, or, to put it another way, to improve the articulation of the units in the American educational system. Although the kindergarten concept is not new, the progress to date has been disappointing to its proponents. Much the same can be said of the nursery school, although the idea of a separate school for the pre-school child is very recent indeed. The big task ahead in school organization and administration is to coordinate and articulate these many units. Meanwhile, and no doubt always, if we are to keep abreast of the times and meet changing conditions, all units at all levels of American education must remain flexible.

STUDY AIDS

1. What are the functions of a nursery school?
2. If there is a nursery school in the vicinity, appoint a small committee to visit it and make a class report.
3. What are the functions of a kindergarten?
4. If there is a kindergarten in the vicinity, appoint a small committee to visit it and make a class report.
5. Distinguish between "elementary," "secondary," and "higher education."

6. If time permits, assign special reports on the "battles" for free, tax-supported, non-sectarian, state-controlled schools, as described by Cubberley in *Public Education in the United States*.
7. Trace the evolution of the American elementary school.
8. Trace the evolution of the American high school.
9. What are the purposes of a junior high school?
10. What are the purposes of a junior college?
11. Review the G.I. Bill of Rights under which veterans are now attending colleges and universities.
12. What are the next steps in American school organization?
13. Is it possible to equalize educational opportunity in America?
14. What percentage of the pupils in your state climb the American educational ladder, *rung by rung*? Your state reports will show the enrollment grade by grade. Start with the first graders of twenty years ago and follow them through college. (See the next chapter.)

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CHAPTER 12

PUBLIC SUPPORT OF EDUCATION

The social, moral, political, and industrial benefits to be derived from the general education of all compensate many times over for its cost.—CUBBERLEY

Public support of education is revealed in both the money raised and expended for educational purposes, and the extent to which the people take advantage of the educational opportunities afforded them. This chapter deals with (1) the problems of school revenues and expenditures, as they are related to the organization and administration of educational units, (2) the faith of the American people in the public school system, as evidenced by school attendance and attainments in the various regions, and (3) the relationship of education to economic well-being—answering the perennial question as to whether or not the taxpayers can afford good schools.

The Battle for Free Schools in America

The great struggle in American life during the first half of the nineteenth century was the development of the free public school. Cubberley is of the opinion that,

Excepting the battle for abolition of slavery, perhaps no question has ever been before the American people for settlement which caused so much feeling or aroused such bitter antagonisms. Old friends and business associates parted company over the question, lodges were forced to taboo the subject to avoid disruption, ministers and their congregations often quarreled over the question of free schools, and politicians avoided the issue. The friends of free schools were at first commonly regarded as fanatics, dangerous to the State, and the opponents of free schools were considered by them as old-time conservatives or as selfish members of society.¹

¹ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934, p. 164.

The truism that "politics makes strange bedfellows" was nowhere better illustrated than in this struggle. On the side which favored public schools were the intelligent workingman and, in general, the residents of the growing cities, plus humanitarians and public men of large vision, plus the non-taxpayers, plus the Calvinists who regarded themselves as God's stewards, plus certain other well-organized propaganda groups. On the other side were the conservatives of society and the members of the old aristocratic classes, plus the ignorant and narrow-minded, plus the penurious and the heavy taxpayers, plus the members of certain religious organizations conducting parochial schools, plus the non-English speaking classes with Old World concepts and traditions, plus the proprietors of private schools, plus certain other well-organized propaganda groups.

The more important arguments on the two sides of the controversy were tabulated by Cubberley as follows:

I. Arguments for public tax-supported schools:

1. That education tends to prevent pauperism and crime.
2. That education tends to reduce poverty and distress.
3. That education increases production, and eliminates wrong ideas as to the distribution of wealth.
4. That a common state school, equally open to all, would prevent that class differentiation so dangerous in a Republic.
5. That the old church and private school education had proved utterly inadequate to meet the needs of a changed society.
6. That a system of religious schools is impossible in such a mixed nation as our own.
7. That the pauper-school idea is against the best interests of society, inimical to public welfare, and a constant offense to the poor, many of whom will not send their children because of the stigma attached to such schools.
8. That education as to one's civic duties is a necessity for the intelligent exercise of suffrage, and for the preservation of republican institutions.
9. That the increase of foreign immigration (which became quite noticeable after 1825, and attained large proportions after 1845) is a menace to our free institutions, and that these new elements can be best assimilated in a system of publicly supported and publicly directed common schools.

10. That the free and general education of all children at public expense is the natural right of all children in a Republic.
11. That the social, moral, political, and industrial benefits to be derived from the general education of all compensate many times over for its cost.
12. That a general diffusion of education among the people would contribute to the increased permanency of our institutions, and to the superior protection of liberty, person, and property.
13. That the state that has the right to hang has the right to educate.
14. That the taking over of education by the State is not based on considerations of economy, but is the exercise of the States' inherent right to self-preservation and improvement.
15. That only a system of state-controlled schools can be free to teach whatever the welfare of the State may demand.

II. Arguments against public tax-supported schools.

1. Impractical, visionary, and "too advanced" legislation.
2. Will make education too common, and will educate people out of their proper position in society.
3. Would not benefit the masses, who are already as well cared for as they deserve.
4. Would tend to break down long-established and very desirable social barriers.
5. Would injure private and parochial schools, in which much money had been put and "vested rights" established.
6. Fear of the churches that state schools might injure their church progress and welfare.
7. Fear of the non-English speaking classes that state schools might supplant instruction in their languages.
8. The "conscientious objector" claimed that the State had no right to interfere between a parent and his child in the matter of education.
9. That those having no children to be educated should not be taxed for schools.
10. That taking a man's property to educate his neighbor's child is no more defensible than taking a man's plow to plow his neighbor's field.
11. That the State may be justified in taxing to defend the liberties of a people, but not to support their benevolences.
12. That the industrious would be taxed to educate the indolent.

13. That taxes would be so increased that no State could long meet such a lavish drain on its resources.
14. That there was priestcraft in the scheme, the purpose being first to establish a State School, and then a State Church.
15. That education is something for a leisure class, and that the poor have no leisure.²

The stages in the development of a public school sentiment are listed by Cubberley as follows:

1. An attempt to solve the problem through private benevolence of church charity often aided by small grants of public lands.
2. Aid granted to private or semi-private schools or school societies, in the form of small money grants, license taxes, permission to organize lotteries, or land endowments, to enable such schools or societies to extend their instruction or to reduce their tuition rates, or both.
3. Permission granted generally, or to special districts requesting it, to form a tax district and organize schools—at first often only for pauper children, but later for others.
4. Laws requiring the education of the indigent poor.
5. Laws requiring a certain local effort for the maintenance of schools in return for state aid received, with permission to supplement these sums with tuition fees.
6. Elimination of the tuition fees, thus establishing free schools.
7. Elimination of the pauper-school idea and aid to sectarian schools, thus establishing the American common school.³

Although by 1850, the question of providing a common-school education at public expense for all children had been established in principle—at least in the Northern states—it would be a mistake to conclude that the struggle is now over. There is still much controversy over the amount of tax support that shall be given to the public schools, particularly at the secondary and higher levels of education. Also, there is still considerable division of opinion regarding the share of the financial burden to be borne by the states. And at the time this sentence was written, Federal aid to education was the hottest

² *Ibid.*, pp. 165-166.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 163.

question in American educational circles although the public had not been aroused to the point where people were taking sides. Incidentally, whenever and wherever the question of public school support is raised, it is interesting to note how quickly people fall into the two camps described by Cubberley. It might almost be said that these camps are traditional in American life.

The Cost of American Education

Public school finance is a major consideration in American life. Public school property is valued at about eight billion dollars and annual expenditures run from two billion to two and one-half billion dollars.

Table XII, below, shows the revenue receipts of state school systems for 1930 and 1940. These receipts include appropriations from general funds, receipts from taxes levied for school purposes, income from permanent school funds, receipts from leases of school lands, Federal aid, and receipts from miscellaneous sources. During the decade, 1930-40, which included the depression years, there was an increase of approximately \$172,000,000 in total revenue receipts. In contrast, the 1942 revenues were over \$156,000,000 larger than those for 1940. However, 1942 was a war year and so chief reliance throughout has been placed upon 1940 data.

TABLE XII. REVENUE RECEIPTS OF STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS
FOR 1930 AND 1940 *

Source	1929-30		1939-40	
	Amount	Per cent	Amount	Per cent
Total	\$2,088,556,837	100.0	\$2,260,527,045	100.0
Federal	7,333,834	0.4	39,810,339	1.7
State	353,670,462	16.9	684,354,085	30.3
County	216,746,764	10.4	151,096,506	6.7
Local and subsidies.....	1,510,805,777	72.3	1,385,266,115	61.3

* Adapted from "Statistics of State School Systems," 1939-40 and 1941-42, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-40 and 1940-42*, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Sources of Financial Support

It is to be noted that the states' share in the support of public education increased over \$300,000,000 during the biennium, from 16.9 per cent in 1930 to 30.3 per cent in 1940. The increasing role of the state in the support of education is extremely significant. There has been an actual decline in the percentage and the amount of money the counties contribute. Meanwhile, chief reliance continues to be placed upon local revenues; although this source of school support is on the decline. Moreover, a detailed analysis of local funds reveals that the increase in state support has not been accompanied by a corresponding decrease in amounts of local support. Apparently, the additional amounts of state support are being used to improve the educational program.

In 1940, the last normal year for which data are available, 61 per cent of the revenue for public school support was provided by the local school districts, 30 per cent came from state sources, 7 per cent came from counties, and less than 2 per cent from the Federal government. Local school support predominated in the more populous areas of the North and the West, while the Southern states relied more heavily upon state and county funds.

With the notable exceptions of Iowa, Nebraska, and Illinois, which relied almost entirely upon local funds, the states with the greatest dependence upon local school support were the New England states. However, the schools in twenty-eight states received 50 per cent or more of their funds from local sources.

The states with the highest amounts of state support for public schools, well over 50 per cent, were New Mexico, Delaware, North Carolina, Georgia, and Washington. Several others contributed about half the financial support of their public schools, including West Virginia, Florida, Louisiana, South Carolina, Alabama, and California. There was a large group of states wherein the schools received about one-third of their school revenues from state funds, including many states in the Middle West (Minnesota, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan,

Missouri), Utah, and several of the remaining Southern states (including Texas, Oklahoma, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Mississippi).

States receiving substantial county funds were a group in the West (Utah, Nevada, Arizona, and Idaho and, to a lesser degree, Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, and New Mexico) and in the South (Florida, Louisiana, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Georgia, North Carolina, Alabama, and Mississippi). West Virginia is in a class by itself, receiving about half its support from county funds and the balance from state funds, with the usual fraction of Federal aid.

At the present writing Federal aid is almost negligible, although some states are more fortunate in this respect than the remainder, notably Wyoming and Utah, and Delaware, New Hampshire, and Vermont. However, in some of these states much of the area of the state is still held by the Federal government and is, consequently, non-taxable.

The trend generally is away from local and county support toward state support. But, as we shall see, there is already considerable agitation for Federal aid as a means of equalizing educational opportunities in the various states.

Expenditures for School Purposes

Unfortunately, not all the school revenues are used to sustain educational programs. The total expenditures for public elementary, and secondary full-time day schools in 1940 were \$1,941,799,228, as compared with total revenues of \$2,260,527,045. The balance goes for capital outlay (plants and buildings, etc.), debt retirement, and interest on borrowed money. Inasmuch as few new buildings were constructed during the years of the depression or the war years, some idea can be gained as to the size of the indebtedness of the school districts for old plants and buildings. However, there is a general trend toward a reduction in interest payments as a result of improved methods of school financing, increasing state participation, adoption of sound budgetary policies, and programs for refinancing bonded

indebtedness at lower rates of interest. Table XIII, below, shows the current expense, excluding interest on indebtedness, per pupil in 1930 and 1940, by purpose.

TABLE XIII. CURRENT EXPENSE (EXCLUDING INTEREST) PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE IN 1930 AND 1940, BY PURPOSE *

Purpose	1929-30		1939-40	
	Current expense per pupil in average daily attendance	Per cent	Current expense per pupil in average daily attendance	Per cent
Total current expense	\$86.70	100.0	\$88.09	100.0
General control	3.70	4.3	4.15	4.7
Instruction	61.97	71.5	63.66	72.3
Salaries	58.80	67.9	59.63	67.7
Textbooks and supplies	3.17	3.6	4.03	4.6
Operation	10.16	11.7	8.82	10.0
Maintenance	3.71	4.3	3.33	3.8
Auxiliary services	4.80	5.5	5.86	6.6
Fixed charges	3.86	2.7	2.27	2.6
Capital outlay	17.44	11.70
Interest	4.35	5.94

* Adapted from "Statistics of State School Systems," 1939-40 and 1941-42. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-40 and 1940-42*. Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Most of the above items are self-explanatory. Auxiliary services include such items as health services, lunchrooms, athletic facilities, transportation, and community services of various sorts. Fixed charges include such items as contributions to retirement funds, insurance, and rent.

Incidentally, by 1942, the cost per pupil had advanced to \$98.31 per pupil, as compared with \$88.09 in 1940. But we believe 1940 to be a better year for comparisons. Table XIV shows the current expense, excluding interest, per pupil in average daily attendance during 1930 and 1940 in the states of the Union.

A word of caution is in order in interpreting the statistics. First of all, the purchasing power of the dollar fluctuates from time to time. In fact, the dollar has never had the purchasing power in recent years that it had in

TABLE XIV. CURRENT EXPENSE (EXCLUDING INTEREST) PER
PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE FOR 1930 AND 1940,
BY STATE *

State or District of Columbia	1930	1940
Continental United States	\$86.70	\$88.09
Alabama	37.28	36.16
Arizona	109.12	96.26
Arkansas	33.56	31.35
California	133.30	141.93
Colorado	110.76	92.04
Connecticut	102.58	109.18
Delaware	95.12	108.52
Florida	50.61	58.35
Georgia	31.89	42.16
Idaho	86.86	78.05
Illinois	102.56	115.19
Indiana	91.66	86.13
Iowa	96.10	86.47
Kansas	92.81	82.61
Kentucky	46.23	46.78
Louisiana	48.19	56.58
Maine	69.89	63.50
Maryland	80.15	83.81
Massachusetts	109.57	114.52
Michigan	114.76	92.38
Minnesota	101.29	100.38
Mississippi	36.13	30.72
Missouri	70.28	80.36
Montana	109.73	109.07
Nebraska	93.08	74.41
Nevada	136.18	131.35
New Hampshire	92.77	91.31
New Jersey	124.90	136.42
New Mexico	77.21	76.36
New York	137.55	156.86
North Carolina	42.85	40.86
North Dakota	99.55	68.87
Ohio	95.69	96.37
Oklahoma	65.48	63.03
Oregon	103.31	97.42
Pennsylvania	87.81	92.45
Rhode Island	95.74	105.17
South Carolina	39.98	39.68
South Dakota	95.36	85.50
Tennessee	42.66	44.29
Texas	54.57	65.87
Utah	75.08	78.47
Vermont	84.24	85.08
Virginia	44.25	47.91
Washington	100.45	105.31
West Virginia	72.16	63.71
Wisconsin	94.17	91.07
Wyoming	128.59	108.51
District of Columbia	132.39	131.48

* Adapted from "Statistics of State School Systems," *op. cit.*

1914. For example, it is estimated by the U. S. Office of Education that almost 50 per cent of the increase in the cost of education between 1914 and 1930 was due to the depreciation of the dollar. At the present writing, the depreciation of the dollar continues.

Also, the cost of education will vary with the attendance of pupils. The depression years saw a decline in the national birth rate. World War II reversed this trend, and we may expect a bumper crop of school pupils for years to come (see Chapter 3). Moreover, as the holding power of the school improves, we may expect to see a higher percentage of the students enrolled in high school, where the costs are higher than they are in the elementary school.

Likewise, as we increase the number of educational services, we increase the cost of education. The expanded school curriculum; audio-visual aids and new instructional materials of all sorts; new administrative units such as the nursery school, the kindergarten, and the junior college; special provisions for the mentally and physically handicapped; improvement in health services; provisions for counseling and guidance; and better prepared teachers will all cost money. Unless we run into another depression, we may expect the cost of education to increase as the years go by.

Inequalities of School Support

A recital of the cost of education and the descriptions of the various methods of school support in the states suggest to our minds the most glaring defect in our American public school system, namely, *the inequalities in educational opportunity*. In spite of the fact that equality is one of the most distinctive tenets of American life, we fail to provide educational opportunity for millions of American children. Moreover, the opportunities open to each child are determined by the state of nativity and residence. If he is fortunate, he may attend school in a system spending as much as \$6,000 per classroom unit; if unfortunate, he may go to a school where the annual expenditure is less than \$100 per classroom unit.

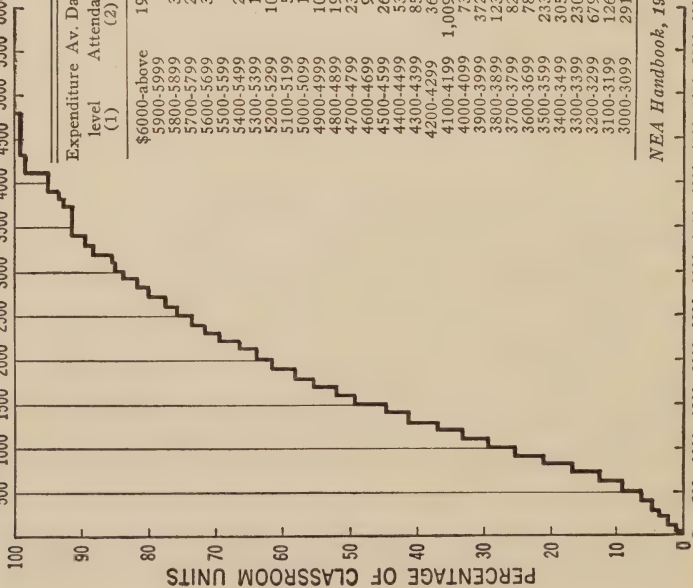
Norton and Lawler conducted an elaborate study to determine the expenditures for education by 115,000 local school administrative units of the United States in the post-depression, pre-war year of 1939-40.⁴ The shocking conclusion was that, "so far as education is concerned, our nation stands not for *equal* but for *unequal* opportunity." Figure 2 reveals their findings. It will be noted that school expenditures vary as much as \$6,000 per classroom unit in the 974,754 classroom units investigated. Moreover, 5.48 per cent of America's children are in classroom units costing less than \$500 per year; 24.74 per cent, costing less than \$1,000; 44.21 per cent, costing less than \$1,500; 63.61 per cent, costing less than \$2,000; 73.58 per cent, costing less than \$2,500; and 84.57 per cent, costing less than \$3,000. When it is pointed out that approximately two-thirds of the expenditures per classroom unit represent the teacher's salary, some idea as to the inequalities of instruction may be gained. The vast majority of the children of America are instructed by teachers receiving pitifully low salaries.

In addition to pointing up the shocking inequalities that exist in the United States in the provision made for education, the Norton-Lawler Report reached a significant conclusion: *the denial of decent educational opportunity to millions of American children will continue so long as the financing of education rests almost solely on the fiscal resources of the individual states.*

Numerous studies reveal the inequalities in the ability of the states to support education. The Northern states, particularly the Northeastern states, have many times the financial resources that the Southern states have. Although the purchasing power of the dollar is a variable in the North and the South—buying far more goods and services in the South—the North has many more dollars to spend for education. Poor states, and poor districts within states, must assume high tax burdens to support even mediocre schools; rich states, and rich districts within states, may support good or excellent schools

⁴ John K. Norton and Eugene S. Lawler, *An Inventory of Public School Expenditure in the United States*, a report of the Cooperative Study of Public School Expenditures, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944. (For summary of the above study, see the *NEA Journal* for February, 1945, pp. 29-32.)

500 1000 1500 2000 2500 3000 3500 4000 4500 5000 5500 6000



Expenditure Av. Daily			Classroom Units			Expenditure Av. Daily			Classroom Units		
level	Attendance		No.	%	Cum. %	level	Attendance		No.	%	Cum. %
(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)	(5)	(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)	(5)
\$6000-above	19,497		790	.08	100.00	2900-2999	518,802		21,884	2.25	83.34
5900-5999	932		42	.00	99.92	2800-2899	388,176		16,176	1.66	81.09
5800-5899	3,391		139	.01	99.92	2700-2799	542,197		22,589	2.32	79.43
5700-5799	2,909		129	.01	99.91	2600-2699	438,877		18,387	1.89	77.11
5600-5699	3,258		138	.01	99.90	2500-2599	383,363		15,990	1.64	75.22
5500-5599	617		30	.00	99.89	2400-2499	569,577		23,748	2.44	73.58
5400-5499	2,966		129	.01	99.89	2300-2399	467,948		19,618	2.01	71.14
5300-5399	1,963		75	.01	99.88	2200-2299	603,873		25,283	2.59	69.13
5200-5299	10,701		450	.05	99.87	2100-2199	679,471		28,527	2.93	66.54
5100-5199	5,242		397	.04	99.82	2000-2099	647,994		27,380	2.81	63.61
5000-5099	1,807		94	.01	99.78	1900-1999	675,769		28,891	2.96	60.80
4900-4999	10,520		445	.05	99.77	1800-1899	606,153		26,247	2.69	57.84
4800-4899	19,697		861	.09	99.72	1700-1799	755,374		32,806	3.37	55.15
4700-4799	23,469		967	.10	99.63	1600-1699	777,574		34,142	3.50	51.78
4600-4699	9,786		414	.04	99.53	1500-1599	896,572		39,658	4.07	48.28
4500-4599	26,556		1,145	.12	99.49	1400-1499	862,481		38,440	3.94	44.21
4400-4499	53,561		2,241	.23	99.37	1300-1399	793,589		36,046	3.70	40.27
4300-4399	85,247		3,566	.37	99.14	1200-1299	905,575		41,274	4.23	36.57
4200-4299	36,566		1,557	.16	98.77	1100-1199	855,987		39,868	4.09	32.34
4100-4199	1,009,333		41,406	4.25	98.61	1000-1099	693,436		34,217	3.51	28.35
4000-4099	73,587		3,085	.32	94.36	900-999	906,420		44,093	4.52	24.74
3900-3999	372,395		15,330	1.57	94.04	800-899	801,648		41,840	4.29	20.22
3800-3899	123,884		4,951	.51	92.47	700-799	799,706		42,535	4.36	15.93
3700-3799	82,152		3,439	.35	91.96	600-699	605,916		31,901	3.27	11.57
3600-3699	78,660		3,300	.34	91.61	500-599	547,646		27,480	2.82	8.30
3500-3599	233,277		9,714	1.00	91.27	400-499	333,123		15,662	1.61	5.48
3400-3499	305,809		12,619	1.30	90.27	300-399	320,047		14,492	1.49	3.87
3300-3399	320,873		9,715	1.00	88.97	200-299	251,454		11,353	1.16	2.38
3200-3299	679,376		27,864	2.86	87.97	100-199	233,119		10,285	1.05	1.22
3100-3199	126,142		5,246	.54	85.11	0-99	38,253		1,674	.17	.17
3000-3099	291,335		11,990	1.23	84.57	Total	21,825,628		974,754	100.00	

NEA Handbook, 1946-47, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1946, p. 298.

Figure 2. Distribution of Classroom Units According to Levels of Expenditure in the United States

with little effort. In the richer states, and in the more wealthy districts, more money is spent for each child in school, the teachers are better trained and receive higher salaries, the textbooks and supplementary instructional materials are better in quality and more plentiful, the average value of the school property per pupil is considerably higher, the schools are kept open more days in the year, and the pupils attend more regularly and for more years. In spite of the effort they put forth, the less fortunate districts are at a decided disadvantage.

In time, we may expect more Federal aid for the support of education to more nearly equalize the opportunities within the states. Meantime, there is a definite trend in the direction of more state aid to more nearly equalize the educational opportunities within the individual states. One can hardly argue that because a child happens to be born in a poor state he deserves to attend poor schools any more than one can argue that because a child is born in a poor school district within a state he deserves to attend poor schools. The principle that has operated to eliminate inequalities within states must be applied sooner or later to the inequalities that exist in the various regions of the United States.

The 1940 Federal census contains ample evidence that education is not receiving sufficient support in many states and in many school districts in more favorably situated states. In 1940, there were nearly 3,000,000 adult citizens who had never attended any school. More than 10,000,000 adults were classified as virtual illiterates. Nearly 2,000,000 children of school age were not attending school.

The people of the United States were shocked to learn that during World War II, approximately 5,000,000 men were rejected by Selective Service because of educational, physical, and mental deficiencies. No doubt, a considerable percentage of the causes for rejection could have been prevented or remedied by an effective school program, including adequate health inspection and instruction. Among those examined for Selective Service, $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent were classified as illiterate; and 40 per cent of all registrants for Selective Service had not gone beyond the elementary school grades.

School Attendance in the United States

There is ample evidence that educational progress is being made in the United States as a whole. The tabulation below shows the enrollment by grades in the public schools for 1930 and 1940.

TABLE XV. ENROLLMENT BY GRADES IN PUBLIC DAY SCHOOLS,
FOR 1930 AND 1940 *

Grade	1929-1930	1939-1940
Total	25,678,015	25,433,542
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PUPILS.....	21,278,593	18,832,098
Kindergarten	723,443	594,647
First Grade	4,150,919	3,018,463
Second Grade	2,802,914	2,333,076
Third Grade	2,732,239	2,331,559
Fourth Grade	2,599,229	2,321,867
Fifth Grade	2,382,491	2,247,692
Sixth Grade	2,256,249	2,176,133
Seventh Grade	2,029,736	2,107,667
Eighth Grade	1,601,373	1,700,994
SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS.....	4,399,422	6,601,444
First Year	1,626,823	2,011,341
Second Year	1,192,185	1,767,312
Third Year	879,525	1,485,603
Fourth Year	700,889	1,281,735
Post Graduate		55,453

* Adapted from "Statistics of State School Systems," 1939-40 and 1941-42, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-40 and 1940-42*, Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Although there had been a noticeable decrease in kindergarten and elementary school attendance, it is believed that even a higher percentage of the children were in school. The depression years saw a decided drop in the birth rate, but by 1940, the birth rate had picked up again (2,360,399).

1930	2,203,958	1934	2,167,636
1931	2,112,760	1935	2,155,105
1932	2,074,042	1936	2,144,796
1933	2,081,232	1937	2,203,337

The marked improvement was in grades seven to twelve, all of which showed considerable increase in enrollment. More-

over, much of this increase was in school years not covered by compulsory attendance laws in most states.

The Extent of Schooling in the United States

The census of 1940 recorded the level of education reached by all the people of the United States. These data reveal the educational status of the adult citizens of each state and, thus, provide the basis for comparisons among the states. Persons under twenty years of age were omitted on the premise that most of them had not yet completed their formal schooling. This, also, is no doubt true of those between twenty and twenty-five. Also, persons over sixty years of age in March, 1940, were omitted since their school years would antedate the period of well-organized public school systems. A mere tabulation of the formal schooling claimed by persons is not entirely valid, because the years in school do not represent the same periods of time, due to the irregularities in the length of school terms. Nor, due to the varieties of educational practices, would the educational experiences be equivalent. Nevertheless, the figures are very revealing. As a matter of fact, the shorter the school term and the poorer the schooling, the more glaring the inequalities in educational status appear to be. The differences are much more significant than a tabulation would make them appear.

The NEA Committee on Tax Education and School Finance has made an elaborate study of the census figures.⁵ Figure 3 represents the comparative educational standards (attainments in terms of years of formal schooling) of the inhabitants of the forty-eight states. The study also contains detailed charts showing the educational attainments of the adult citizens of every state in terms of grade school, high school, and college attendance.

Educational attainments, in terms of years of formal schooling, are highest in the Western states and lowest in the Southern states. The states of the Middle West, New England, and the

⁵ J. R. Mahoney, et al, *The Extent of Schooling of the American People*, Washington, D. C.: Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, National Education Assn., 1944.

COMPARATIVE EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS OF 48 STATES

YEARS OF SCHOOLING

AS SHOWN BY

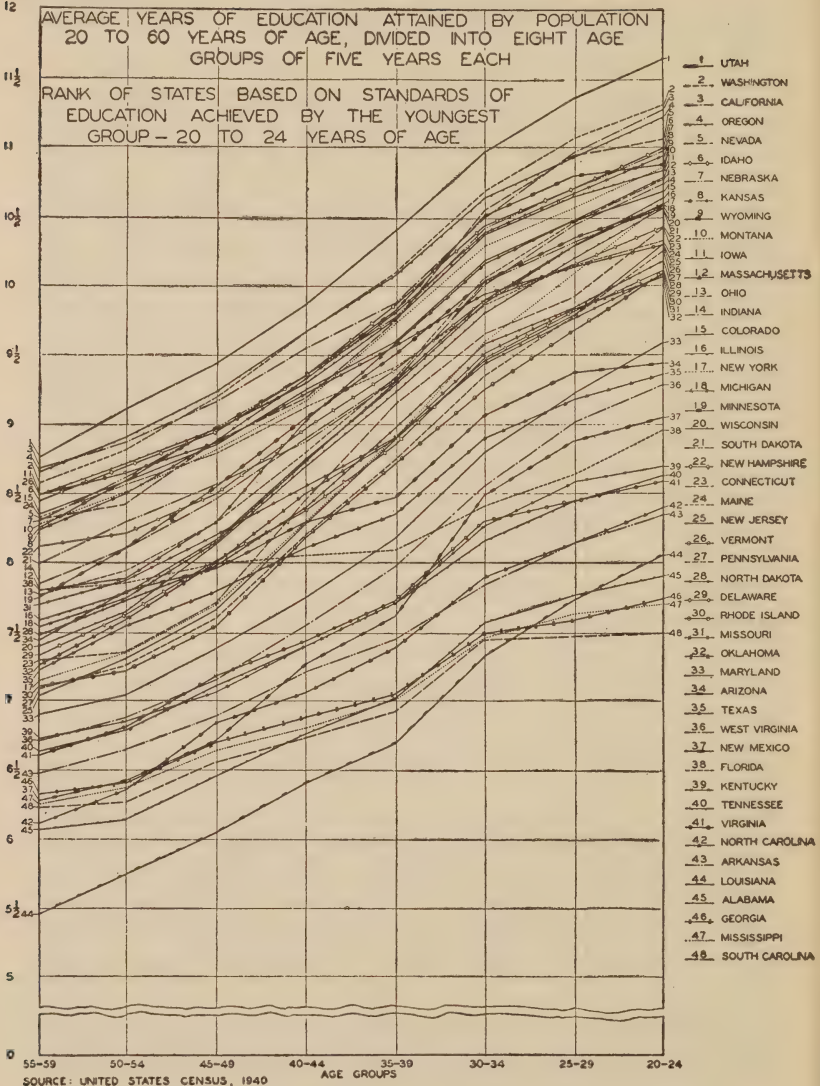


Figure 3. Comparative Educational Standards of 48 States

Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, NEA, "Extent of Schooling of the American People," 1944, p. 3.

Atlantic seaboard occupy most of the intermediate positions, in that order.

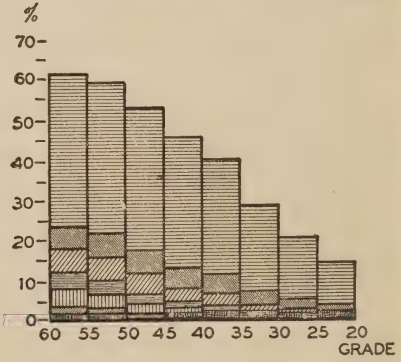
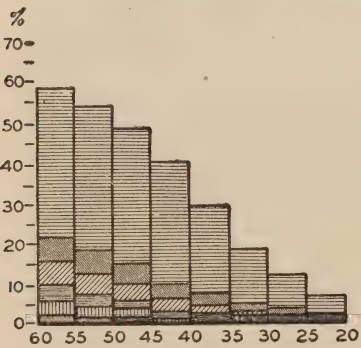
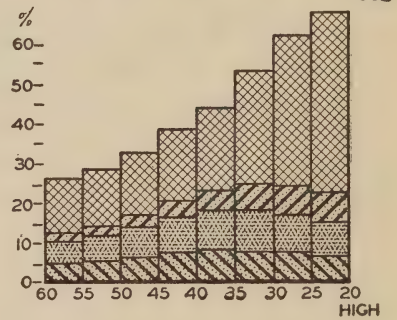
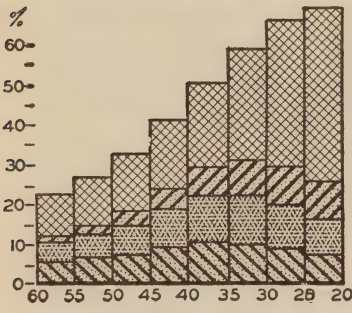
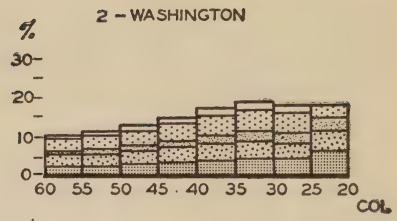
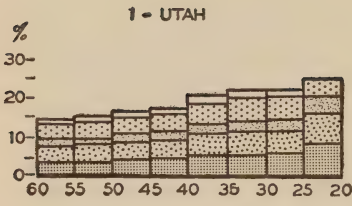
The people of the younger ages have had far more formal schooling than their elders. In fact, the charts portray in graphic manner educational progress within the various states, by five-year periods. There is a marked decline in the percentage of those with no schooling and of those terminating their education in the grades, and a decided increase in the percentage attending high school and college. Figure 4 represents the four highest states and Figure 5 the four lowest states. The black bars at the bottom represent the percentage with no school attendance in the various age brackets, the next eight bars represent the percentage terminating their formal schooling in each of the eight grades of the elementary school; the next group of four bars represent the percentage terminating their formal schooling in each of the four years of the traditional high school course, or grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve; the upper group of five bars represent the percentage terminating their formal schooling in each of the four years of the traditional college course or in graduate study. The number preceding the name of the state indicates the relative position of the state among the forty-eight states.

The charts reveal that rapid progress in schooling has been made by some states. But for many the advancement has been slow and, in a few states, the slow rate of progress is alarming. As might be surmised from our previous discussion, the rate of progress has, in general, been greatest in the states with the highest standards. Unfortunately, least progress has been noticed in states with the lowest standards.

As Mahoney says, "Educational progress seems to be cumulative. The charts reveal that when higher standards are once achieved, they are retained and form a basis from which additional progress takes place at a more rapid rate."⁶ Many factors are, no doubt, involved in this progress: "rapid expansion of high school facilities, improvement in school organization (consolidation, etc.), raising the age of compulsory attendance laws, extension of transportation facilities, increase

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 2.

LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY AGE



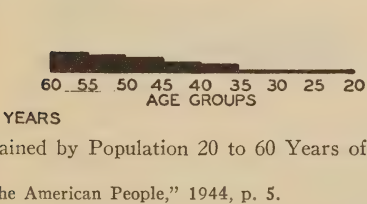
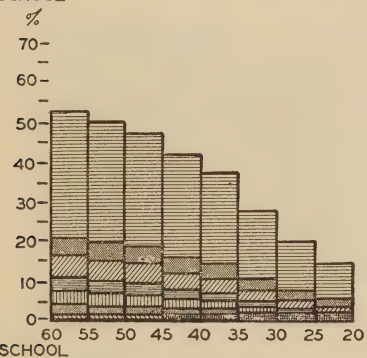
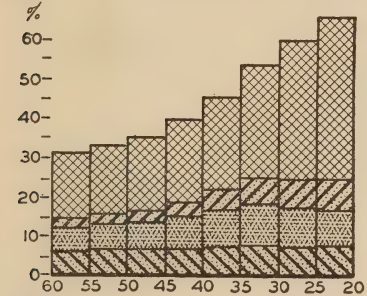
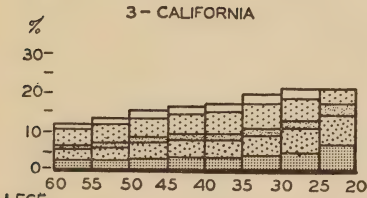
60 55 50 45 40 35 30 25 20
AGE GROUPS

60 55 50 45 40 35 30 25 20
AGE GROUPS
NO SCHOOL

Figure 4. The Four States with Highest Average Years of Education At-Five Years Each)

Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, NEA, "Extent of Schooling of

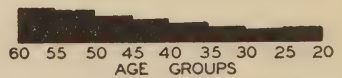
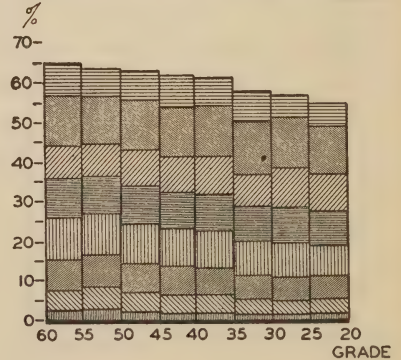
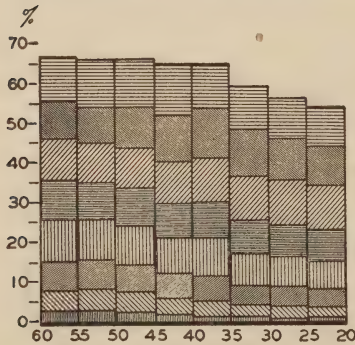
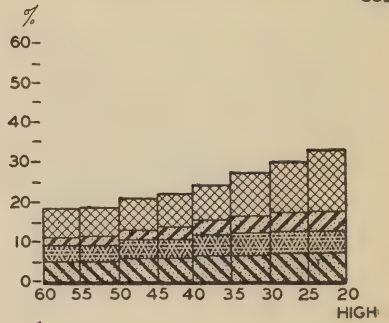
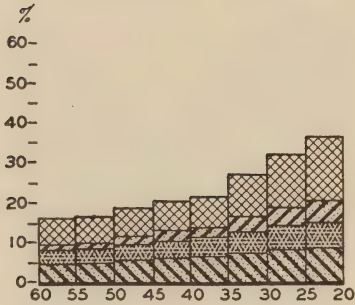
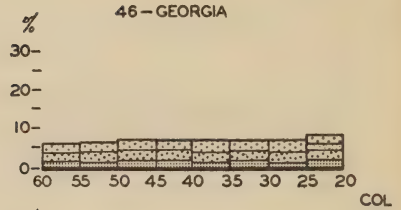
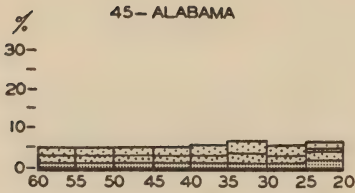
CATION REACHED GROUPS



tained by Population 20 to 60 Years of Age (Divided into Eight Groups of

the American People," 1944, p. 5.

LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY AGE

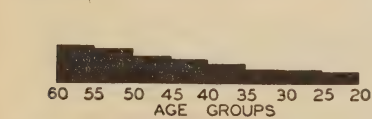
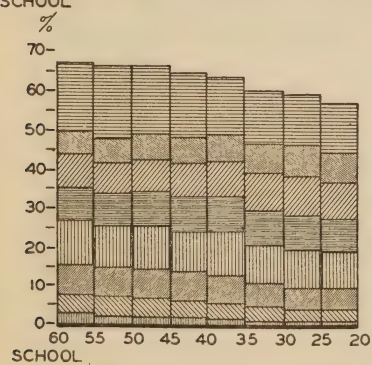
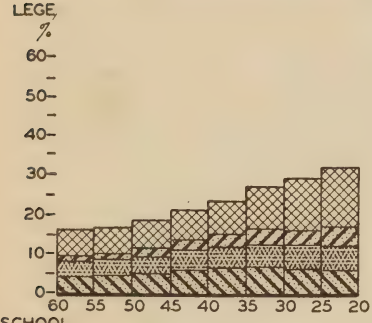
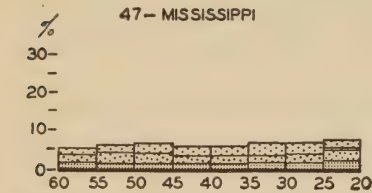


NO SCHOOL

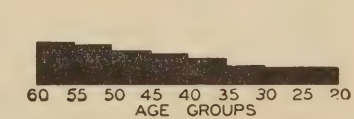
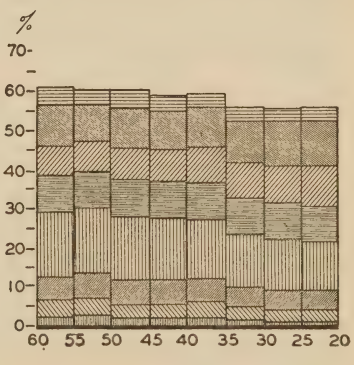
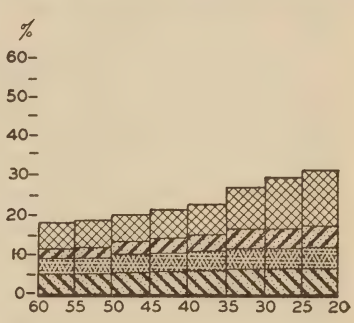
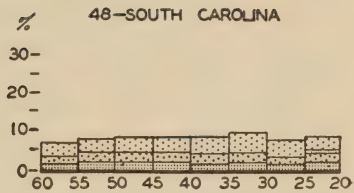
Figure 5. The Four States with Lowest Average Years of Education At-Five Years Each)

Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, NEA, "Extent of Schooling of the

CATION REACHED GROUPS



YEARS
tained by Population 20 to 60 Years of Age (Divided into Eight Groups of
American People," 1944, p. 16.



in the financial resources available for education, and improvement of state aid programs. The slow rate of progress for some of the states is traceable to either the absence or the limited extent of these movements.”⁷

There are a few interesting sidelights: (1) the rank of the Western states is most noticeable in the youngest age groups, where migration has had the least influence; (2) the general tendency for most of the New England states to lose their former high ranking positions is probably due mainly to their failure to make the same rate of improvement in their school systems that others, particularly the Western states, have made; (3) immigration has no doubt had an influence on standards of education, particularly along the North Atlantic coast and the industrialized states of the North Central section; and (4) the generally low ranking of the Southern states is due to the generally lower standard of education of the colored portion of the population. However, on this last point, “If the standards of education of the white population only for the Southern states were used as a basis of comparison, they would still occupy all of the lowest positions.”⁸

Rural Education in America

A similar study has been made of the comparative extent of schooling of the rural-farm population and the urban population of the United States, state by state.⁹ (See Figure 6.) The standards of the rural schools are notoriously low. Moreover, the rural schools have, in general, been the slowest to adopt more effective school organizations and to secure adequate revenues. As Mahoney points out,

This is doubly serious when it is considered that the markedly higher birthrate in the rural areas provides an unusually large portion of the new citizens of the country. The population of the large urban centers of America is made up predominantly of people born elsewhere, especially in the rural districts. The educational standards of the population

⁷ *Ibid.*

⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹ J. R. Mahoney, et al., *Extent of the Schooling of the Rural-Farm Population and the Urban Population*, Washington, D. C.: Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, National Education Assn., 1944.

COMPARATIVE RURAL-FARM EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS

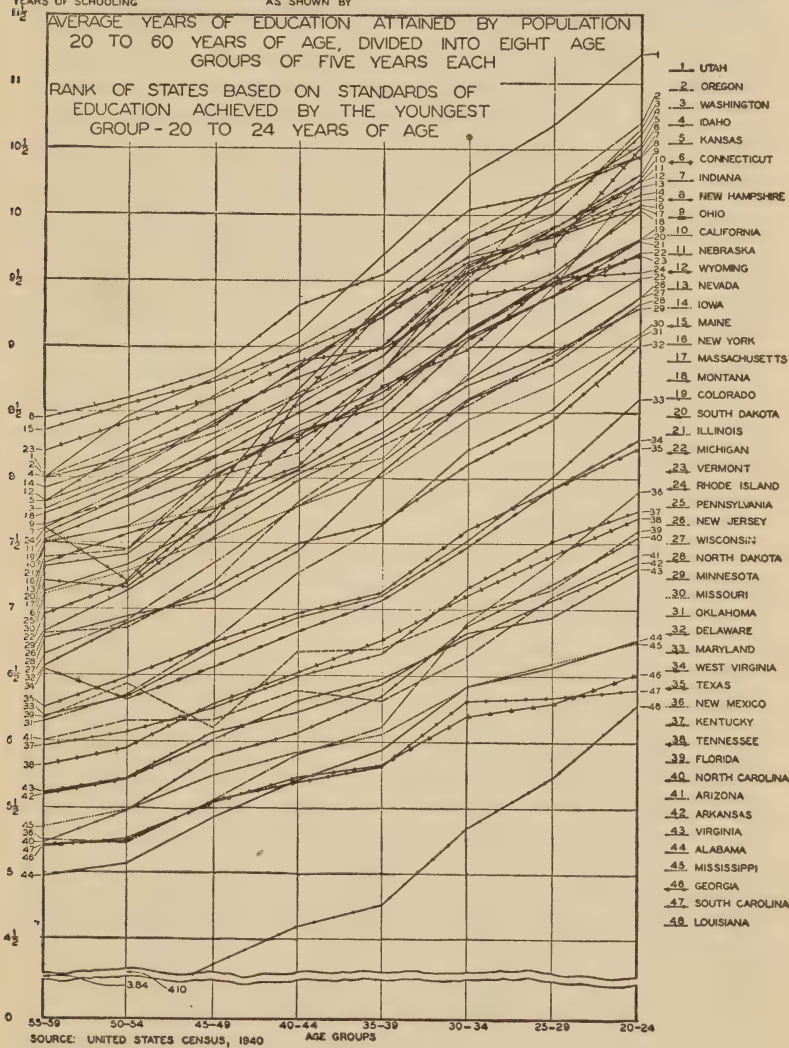


Figure 6. Comparative Rural-Farm Educational Standards

Committee on Tax Education and School Finance, NEA, "Extent of Schooling of the Rural-Farm Population and Urban Population," 1944, p. 3.

in these urban centers are largely determined by the education received by that portion of the population coming from other school systems.¹⁰

The differences between the educational achievement of the rural-farm and the urban population were found to be small for a few of the states and very large for some of the others. Four states showed a difference of less than one-half school year; fourteen states, less than one year; twelve states, differences which ranged between one and one-half years; eight others, between one and one-half and two years; twelve states, between two and three years; and two, in excess of three years. In general, the greatest differences were found in the Southern states, where educational standards were lowest, and the smallest differences occurred in the New England and Eastern states, although Utah, Idaho, and Oregon showed only small differences. Mahoney concludes, "A number of the states have demonstrated that these differences between urban and rural standards need not be very great or perhaps do not need to exist at all."¹¹

As was to be expected, the most rapid progress in rural education was made by the states with the highest standards, and the relatively slowest progress by the states with the lowest standards. Moreover, the differences in standards of education among the states were much greater for the younger than for the older-age groups. The most rapid progress had been made in Connecticut, Utah, Oklahoma, Washington, Nevada, Indiana, California, Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Kansas; and the least progress in South Carolina, Georgia, Mississippi, Florida, Arizona, Vermont, Virginia, Maine, and West Virginia. For a number of the Southern states, terminations were almost as heavy in the lower grades as in the eighth grade, and in the lower years of high school as in the fourth year of high school.

The Problem of Rural Education

Rural education constitutes the most challenging area in American education. Although many of the best schools in

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 1.

the nation may be rural schools, it is certain that most of the poorest schools in the nation are found in rural areas. In comparison with the children who attend modern city schools, millions of rural children are seriously handicapped in the educational opportunities available to them.

Altho the rural children of school age constitute more than half of such children in the nation, they have only 38 per cent of the funds available for the support of schools.

The average salary of rural-school teachers is \$967 as compared to \$1,937 for urban teachers. Total expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance in rural schools is only \$86 as compared with \$124 in urban schools.

The estimated value of school property per pupil in rural areas is only \$185 as compared to \$405 in urban areas.

Largely as a result of inadequate salaries for teachers the rural schools get the teachers with the least amount of education for their jobs and the least experience. Nearly 60 per cent of all teachers in rural elementary schools having one or two teachers have had less than two years of education beyond high school. This per cent can be compared with 30 per cent for teachers in three-teacher schools; 20 per cent, in villages under 2,500 population; and 10 per cent, in cities over 2,500 population.

High school education has by no means yet become universal among the rural farm youth. For the group sixteen and seventeen years of age only 56.8 per cent were in school in 1940, as compared to 75.6 per cent of the urban youth of this same age group. There is a very wide difference among the states in the percentage of native white rural farm youth sixteen and seventeen years old attending school, the range being from only 32.2 per cent in Kentucky to 87.5 per cent in Utah.

To a large extent the rural schools are small institutions, over a third of the pupils being enrolled in schools having only one or two teachers. There are still about 108,000 one-teacher schools. . . . These schools enroll over 2.25 million children. There are about 25,000 two-teacher schools enrolling about 1.3 million children. The typical school among the 17,600 rural high schools enrolling more than 2.2 million pupils has only about 100 pupils in attendance.

These small schools present three problems that have not been met to a large extent: (1) they result in excessively high per pupil costs; (2) they usually offer very limited and restricted instructional oppor-

tunities; (3) the teachers usually are not adequately trained to deal with the complicated problems of teaching in small schools.¹²

The rural schools touch intimately the 43.4 per cent of the national population who live in rural areas—the 31 million on farms and the 27 million in the villages under 2,500 population. They enroll over 12,100,000 pupils, or about 48 per cent of all public school pupils in the nation. They employ over 450,000 teachers, or about 52 per cent of the nation's teachers. About 83 per cent of all school buildings in the nation, some 190,000, are in the rural areas. Moreover, the expenditures for rural education exceed \$900,000,000 annually.

Unquestionably, most of the troubles of rural education in the United States are traceable to the small, uneconomical, and ineffective local school districts. As pointed out in an earlier chapter, in twenty-six states the schools are so organized. In fact, at least seventeen different kinds of local or common school districts are described in the statutes. In the rural farm areas each school constitutes a separate unit, with its own school trustees and its local tax levy. As Dawson cleverly said, "Indeed, there is trouble at the crossroads, right at the door of the little red schoolhouse."¹³

Much of this trouble is due to the inadequate financial resources of such small taxing units. Farm people have 31 per cent of the nation's children, and only 9 to 12 per cent of the national income. Furthermore, conditions throughout the nation are variable; it is far worse in some quarters than those figures indicate.

The farmers of the Southeast sections of the United States have 13.4 per cent of the nation's children of school age, five to seventeen, but only 2.2 per cent of the national income. On the other hand, the non-farm people of the Northeast have about 27 per cent of the nation's children and nearly 42 per cent of the nation's income. Only in the Northeast and in the Far West does the per cent of the national income received by the farmers exceed the per cent of the nation's children reared by them.¹⁴

¹² Howard R. Dawson, "Trouble at the Crossroads," *The White House Conference on Rural Education*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1944, p. 30.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 31.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 39.

Also,

In general about 70 per cent of the funds for school support come from general property taxes. About 63 per cent come from local district property taxes. This situation means that about two-thirds of the funds for public schools come from one-third of the taxable resources of the nation. No other extensive public service is dependent to so large an extent upon the property tax for support.¹⁵

One solution to the problem of rural education in America is larger taxing units. We may expect more and more consolidated school districts, and we should expect the states to use their taxing powers to raise revenues from wealth and income wherever they are, the better to educate the children wherever they are. The state should guarantee sufficient financial resources to each local school district or unit, to enable it to maintain an adequate school system. Moreover, in the near future we should expect additional Federal aid. It is good public policy for the money to follow the child.

Undoubtedly, too much reliance has been placed upon the general property tax. We need to employ a highly diversified tax program, involving "taxes on personal incomes, corporate incomes, business privileges, luxuries, and natural products—minerals, timber, and the like—severed from the soil."

. Compulsory Education

Laws on compulsory attendance are found in all states. However, the ages at which pupils must attend differ by states. Enforcement of these laws varies greatly by states, due partly to differing interests in education and partly to the differences in the laws and regulations governing enforcement. After the differences have been pointed out, laws and regulations governing compulsory school attendance show a definite common pattern. Twenty-four states require attendance from ages 7 to 16: Alabama, Arkansas, Connecticut, Florida, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, South

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 40.

Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. Nine states require attendance from ages 8 to 16: Arizona, California, Colorado, Minnesota, Montana, New Hampshire, Oregon, Vermont, and Washington. Three states require attendance from ages 8 to 18: Idaho, Pennsylvania, and Utah; three states from ages 6 to 16: Illinois, Michigan, and New Mexico; two states from ages 7 to 18: Nevada and Oklahoma; two states from ages 7 to 17: Delaware and North Dakota; two states from ages 7 to 14: Missouri and North Carolina. One state requires attendance from ages 7 to 15: Louisiana; one from ages 8 to 14: Georgia; and, last but not least, Ohio requires attendance from ages 6 to 18.¹⁶

For ages 14 to 16, or 14 to 18, there are, except for four states, regulations governing both school attendance and employment. Exemptions from compulsory attendance, apart from the need for employment (the usual excuse), are based on physical and mental disability, distance of residence from school, and attendance at private school or private instruction at home.

Evidence of age (43 states) and of education (29 states) are among the items most often required for the issuance of employment certificates to pupils. A somewhat smaller number of states require evidence of physical fitness for work (25 states) and a direct offer of employment (20 states). The personal appearance of the parent or guardian is necessary in 8 states.¹⁷

The enforcement of child labor laws insofar as they pertain to hours of labor, conditions of labor, and types of work is generally in the hands of the labor or welfare department of the state concerned. The schools usually cooperate with these agencies in checking on the violations of the compulsory school law through the employment of children. Violations of child labor laws not concerned with violations of the compulsory school law are invariably a responsibility of the welfare and labor agencies. Commonly, both school representatives and

¹⁶ *School Census, Compulsory Education, Child Labor State Laws and Regulations*, Bulletin, 1945, No. 1, Washington, D. C.: Federal Security Agency, U. S. Office of Education, 1945.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 16-17.

welfare and labor agency representatives inspect factories, offices, and other places where children are, or might be, employed.

Attendance laws uniformly recognize the rights of the parent to the control of his child, but at the same time make the parent responsible for the attendance of the child at school. It is the parent, not the child, who violates the compulsory school attendance law; it is he against whom legal proceedings are entered, and penalties assessed. It is extremely difficult for a parent to plead his inability to keep his child in school, unless he wishes to establish the fact that he is unable to control the behavior of the child in question. "Either the parent must send his child to school or surrender some of his rights to control his child, to the end that the child may receive the educational opportunities the law guarantees him."¹⁸

Balance Sheet of States

A recent publication¹⁹ rated the states according to their all-over educational performance. (See Table XVI). The all-over performance was arrived at as follows: first, the states were arrayed in terms of educational accomplishments, including percentage of youth completing the eighth grade, percentage of youth enrolled in high school, percentage of youth graduating from high school, percentage of youth enrolled as college undergraduates, and percentage of youth graduating from college. Second, the states were listed in terms of their ability to support education, as measured by income per child. Third, the states were arranged in order of the degree in which their accomplishment is commensurate with their ability. Fourth, the states were listed on the degree of effort to provide for education, in terms of the percentage of state income devoted to education. Fifth, the states were ranked according to the efficiency of their educational effort, in terms of the percentage of the attainable goals which any state may be expected to achieve in view of the average performance of all. Sixth, the states were arranged in

¹⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 23.

¹⁹ Raymond H. Hughes and William H. Lancelot, *Education: America's Magic*. Ames, Iowa: The Iowa State College Press, 1946.

TABLE XVI. RELATIVE RANK OF STATES AS TO CRITERIA
EMPLOYED IN THE HUGHES-LANCELOT STUDY

State	Accom- plish- ment	Ability	Accom- plish- ment commen- surate with ability	Effort	Effi- ciency	Educa- tional level of adults	Over-all perform- ance
Utah	1	32	1	4	1	1	1
Kansas	4	28	2	7	5	12	2
Oregon	2	12	5	24	3	3	3
Nebraska	5	28	3	16	2	10	4
Iowa	9	24	10	12	8	8	5
Washington	3	10	8	32	6	5	6
California	8	4	9	25	9	2	7
Idaho	13	31	11	5	19	7	8
New Hampshire ..	7	16	13	29	4	16	9
Colorado	11	19	16	17	14	8	10
North Dakota ...	18	37	4	3	11	24	11
Nevada	10	2	15	31	21	4	12
Oklahoma	22	37	6	6	7	28	12
South Dakota ...	20	34	7	1	27	17	14
Massachusetts ...	6	6	14	43	10	15	15
Montana	14	18	22	13	32	13	16
New York	12	1	12	32	15	27	17
Wisconsin	15	21	17	21	17	25	17
Vermont	23	24	23	20	13	11	19
Indiana	16	19	19	22	20	21	20
Minnesota	17	21	18	19	25	20	21
Wyoming	24	17	31	9	40	6	22
Ohio	19	11	27	39	31	18	23
Maine	29	26	30	46	12	14	24
Texas	30	33	21	18	28	34	25
Illinois	21	7	29	42	35	22	26
North Carolina ..	40	44	19	10	25	42	27
Michigan	25	14	38	34	36	18	27
Connecticut	26	2	25	45	39	23	29
Missouri	28	23	37	36	29	29	30
Arizona	33	30	38	8	45	31	31
Pennsylvania	27	14	42	30	41	32	32
Tennessee	42	40	36	27	16	40	33
New Mexico	41	42	34	2	46	39	33
South Carolina ...	44	45	26	14	30	46	35
Louisiana	38	37	35	15	34	47	36
West Virginia	37	34	40	23	37	37	37
Mississippi	48	48	24	11	38	45	38
Kentucky	43	43	33	37	17	41	38
Alabama	46	45	31	26	22	44	40
New Jersey	32	7	45	28	48	30	40
Virginia	39	34	41	37	23	38	42
Arkansas	47	47	28	35	23	48	43
Rhode Island	31	9	44	44	44	35	44
Florida	36	27	46	44	44	33	45
Delaware	34	5	47	48	47	26	46
Maryland	35	12	48	47	43	36	47
Georgia	45	40	43	39	33	43	48

terms of the educational level of the adult population. Finally, the ratings on the above criteria—omitting *ability*, and giving *accomplishment* a weight of 2—were averaged, and the rank as to the average was taken as the apparent educational rank of each state on the basis of all-around general performance.

“Education—an Investment in People”²⁰

The above title is taken from an official publication of the United States Chamber of Commerce. For many years, in many centers, there has been a misunderstanding between the businessman and the educator. The businessman, who feels that he pays the bill, has often been antagonistic to school innovations of various sorts; the school superintendent has learned through “the university of hard knocks” that he cannot change anything in the school program until he has the approval of the patrons, particularly those in possession of the money-bags. As the publication puts it, “There has been too much disposition on the part of businessmen to look on educators as impractical theorists who don’t know the value of the dollar; and on the part of the educators to regard businessmen as a bunch of penny-pinching skinflints.”²¹ This publication resolves this age-old controversy; it is a plea for mutual understanding and cooperation.

The businessman has an interest at stake in public education. He is probably the father, or more likely the grandfather, of the boys and girls in school. Not only does he contribute heavily to school support, he is largely dependent upon the products of the public school for his employees. Moreover, as everyone knows, even in these years of great mobility of population, a large percentage of the graduates of the local school system will pass their adult years in that locality. With this thought in mind, the U. S. Chamber of Commerce under the leadership of Eric Johnston, the president, and Ralph Bradford, the general manager, employed Dr. Paul H. Good to

²⁰ *Education—an Investment in People*, Committee on Education, Thomas C. Boushall, Chairman, The United States Chamber of Commerce, Washington, D. C., November, 1944.

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

make a study "to ascertain whether there is a direct relationship between economic status and educational level of the people of our country."²²

The findings were all that the most ardent educator could wish for. Evidence is piled up to show that *education increases the productive and consumptive capacity of people*. There is a *direct relationship between the income and the amount of education received by a worker*. "Among wage and salary workers, the higher incomes generally are received by persons of higher education." The report states that 50 per cent of those who attended college or went beyond, 39 per cent of those who reached high school or graduated, and 11 per cent of those who had eight years of school or less reached the \$5,000 income bracket. "Those limited to a grade school education are found to predominate in the lower income brackets; they decrease in proportion as the higher income brackets are reached." "The percentage of those having some high school education rises up to the \$3,000 income figure and falls off slightly beyond that point."²³ These assertions hold for all sections of the country—North, South, and West.

It is generally conceded that rent paid, or the rental value of homes owned by the occupants, is another indicator of economic well-being. *Rent, too, was found to be related directly to the amount of education received*. "The higher rents generally are paid by persons with higher education." The report states that 47 per cent of those who attended college or attended a university after high school graduation, 36 per cent of those who reached high school or graduated from high school, and 17 per cent of those who had eight years of schooling or less, paid \$75 or more per month for rent. "Those with an 8th grade education or less are found predominantly in the low rental groups, and the percentage diminishes sharply as we pass beyond the \$10 to \$14 group." "The percentage of those having some high school education rises up to the \$50 to \$74 group."²⁴ This, likewise, was true of the North, South, and West.

²² *Ibid.*, p. 3.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

²⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 26.

A very interesting and unique study was made of the relationship of educational level to per capita retail sales in the various states of the union. *Thirty-one states hold the same group positions in both level of education and per capita retail sales.* And, most of the other states changed their relative position only to the next group (of five groups) above or below. "Without attempting to determine cause and effect, it is significant that the areas of higher per capita retail sales throughout the nation follow closely the areas of higher educational level." ²⁵

Likewise, in a survey of the relationship of educational level to magazine circulation *thirty-two states held the same group positions (in five groups) in both level of education and the circulation of eighteen nationally advertized magazines.* It was assumed that lack of "magazine circulation, a recognized measure of educational levels, reveals not only the areas of educational deficiency, but areas in which markets and business opportunity are consequently restricted." ²⁶

Likewise, in a survey of the relationship of educational level to telephone service, *thirty-one states held the same group positions (in five groups) in both level of education and the number of telephones in use per thousand population.* In the opinion of the investigators, "Telephone service may be looked upon as a measure of the standard of living as well as an index of business opportunity. Even outside the centers of great business concentration, we find the higher per capita usage in areas of higher educational level." ²⁷

Also, in a study of the relationship of educational level and mental and educational deficiency, *twenty-nine states held the same group positions (in five groups) in both educational level and rejections for military service because of mental and educational deficiency.* The committee concluded,

It becomes increasingly important that a nation have its manpower physically and educationally fit in times of great national emergency. Rejections for military service by reason of mental and educational

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 32.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 35.

deficiency are seen in their wide variation with less than one per cent in one state to over 12 per cent in another.²⁸

As might be surmised, the Western and Northern states, in that order, had the fewest rejectees.

Another aspect of this investigation was a study of the educational level and retail sales in the metropolitan districts of seventy-eight cities having populations of 100,000 or more. The very interesting conclusion is that, "*There is a progressive shrinkage in the average per capita retail sales as we move downward from those groups of communities with the higher levels of education to those with the lower levels.*"²⁹

No doubt this study was suggested to the United States Chamber of Commerce by an earlier publication of the Educational Policies Commission entitled, *Education and Economic Well-Being in American Democracy*, by Dr. John K. Norton.³⁰ Norton developed the thesis that *education and economic well-being are interdependent*. The volume calls for "thoughtful appraisal of the contributions which education makes to productivity and general economic well-being, and judicial consideration of the economic limitations on the amount which may be wisely spent for education."

It is a great day in American education when one of America's most conservative bodies advocates that business sponsor an expanded educational program as a means of economic improvement. The impartial study of an outside party has greatly strengthened the plea of the educator.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have dealt with the two separate aspects of public support of education: (1) How well the American people support the schools, financially, and (2) how well the American people support the schools, educationally. Also, we have presented the evidence that education does pay.

The American people do support their school system: they

²⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 38.

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 41. (Italics mine.)

³⁰ Washington, D. C., 1940.

pay taxes to support the greatest school system ever underwritten by a people in the history of the world, and they send their children in ever increasing numbers to take advantage of the educational opportunities. Also, by and large, they are convinced that education pays.

If statistics on revenues and expenditures, on the one hand, and school attendance and attainment, on the other, mean anything at all, the future of the American public school system is assured. Not only will the American dig down into his pocket-book to support education, but also he will see to it that the youth of the nation take advantage of the educational offerings, whether they wish to do so or not.

Probably the most unique thing about American life is the faith of the typical American in education. Moreover, there is no evidence that the historic faith of the American people in education is likely to diminish. On the contrary, there is considerable evidence that education will be on surer footing tomorrow than it is today, just as it is on surer footing today than it was yesterday. There is good reason to believe that the American people will continue to demand better schools and to increase their financial support of such schools.

STUDY AIDS

1. What are the three aspects of public support of education discussed in the chapter?
2. What are the arguments for free, tax-supported public schools?
3. How valid are the arguments against free, tax-supported public schools?
4. In your opinion, is the battle for free, tax-supported public schools completely won? Give the evidence.
5. Compare the expenditures for education in your state with the expenditures for tobacco, alcohol, jewelry, and amusements. Your state tax commission should have these figures.
6. What percentage of the revenue for public school support in your state is provided by the local school district? state

sources? county sources? and national sources? How do the state percentages compare with comparable data from other states?

7. How much of the expenditures for education in your state is for capital outlay, debt retirement, and interest on borrowed money? How does this compare with the national picture?
8. How do the expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance in your state compare with the national figures (see Table XIII) in your school district?
9. Do you expect the costs of education to increase or decrease? Why?
10. Explain the assertion, "so far as education is concerned, our nation stands not for *equal* but for *unequal* opportunity." How do you account for this situation?
11. What is the solution to the problem of inequalities in educational opportunity?
12. What did Selective Service (for World War II) reveal regarding educational attainments?
13. What does Mahoney mean when he says, "Educational progress seems to be cumulative" (see Figures 4 and 5)?
14. Why does rural education constitute a problem in the United States?
15. What seem to be the solutions to the problem of rural education in the United States?
16. Why do you think compulsory school laws vary among the states?
17. Debate the issue: Resolved, that all states should have the same compulsory school laws.
18. Secure copies of *Education—an Investment in People* from the United States Chamber of Commerce and inspect the graphic representations in class.
19. How does education increase the productive capacity of people? the consumptive capacity?
20. Do you believe that education and economic well-being are interdependent? How?

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CHAPTER 13

THE NATURE OF THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Civilization is a race between education and catastrophe.—
H. G. WELLS

The Objectives of American Education

Numerous attempts have been made to state the objectives of American education. Although such statements do not reveal complete agreement, there is a common core to all of them. After all, such pronouncements are all relative to the time and place in which they are made; statements naturally vary from year to year as society moves from one crisis to another. Also, any new list of objectives reflects the endeavor of its formulators to correct the defects in previous inventories. Every list will reflect what its makers value most. And there has been no disposition on the part of American educators to sell America short. The outstanding characteristic of the many formulations of the objectives of American education is the continued driving toward the democratic ideal; the minimum essentials of democracy constitute the common core in the many, many lists.¹

One of the finest statements of the objectives of American education is the recent pronouncement of the Educational Policies Commission, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, written by Dr. William G. Carr.²

¹ For a more complete and more technical treatment of this problem, see John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*, New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, Ch. 12.

² Published and distributed under that title by the National Education Assn., Washington, D. C., 1938. It is also included as Book III of *Policies for Education in American Democracy*, published by the National Education Assn. in 1946. This latter publication also includes, as Book I, "The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy," by Dr. Charles A. Beard, and, as Book II, "The Education of Free Men in American Democracy," by Dr. George S. Counts. (Also published as separate volumes in 1937 and 1941, respectively.)

The Educational Policies Commission was created "to clarify the major current issues facing public education" in the United States. Although it is not an official

Carr is very frank in admitting that "Every statement of educational purposes, including this one, depends upon the judgment of some person or group as to what is good and what is bad, what is true and what is false, what is ugly and what is beautiful, what is valuable and what is worthless, in the conduct of human affairs. Objectives are, essentially, a statement of preferences, choices, values."³

The EPC statement of educational objectives is bedded in American democracy. Other EPC publications analyzed American democracy and its educational implications. This publication recognizes the burden of preparing a people to live in accordance with the ideals of democracy: "the general welfare," "civil liberties," "the appeal to reason," and "the consent of the governed." It is assumed that democratic living is a complex process, involving more education of the free man than is necessary under any other form of government.

The four great purposes of education leading toward the democratic ideals, each requiring specific emphases in the school program, are outlined as follows:⁴

The first of these major purposes has to do with personal growth of the individual. Command of the fundamental tools of learning, an inquiring mind, desirable health habits and suitable leisure time interests are results of the educative process which society desires for every one. These are designated as the *objectives of self-realization*.

A second major purpose concerns the problem of getting along with other people. The ability to work and play with others, to enjoy a varied social life both within and outside the home, to appreciate and observe the ideals of family life, are important goals of education. These are described as the *objectives of human relationship*.

The third major purpose relates to the earning and spending of an income. Information as to the requirements and opportunities in various types of work, knowledge of the satisfactions of good workmanship and of success in a chosen occupation, and understanding of methods of safeguarding the buyer's interests, are all matters properly within

body, it has all the prestige of its backer, the National Education Association. Although originally created in 1935 and operated on a grant from the General Education Board, in 1944 it was put on a continuing basis. From time to time, we may expect to hear more from the EPC, as it is called.

³ *Policies for Education in American Democracy*, p. 157.

⁴ This digest is apparently official; it appeared in *School and Society*, 43:620 (November 12, 1938).

the scope of the school program. These are classified as the *objectives of economic efficiency*.

The fourth major purpose is centered around participation in civic affairs. The development of respect for differences of opinion, understanding of the processes of a democratic society, regard for proper use of the nation's resources and appreciation of the disparities of human circumstances as well as of methods for contributing to the general welfare are responsibilities which the system of public education cannot ignore. These are the *objectives of civic responsibility*.

The objectives of American education according to EPC, are as follows:⁵

THE OBJECTIVES OF SELF-REALIZATION

The Inquiring Mind. The educated person has an appetite for learning.

Speech. The educated person can speak the mother tongue clearly.

Reading. The educated person reads the mother tongue efficiently.

Writing. The educated person writes the mother tongue effectively.

Number. The educated person solves his problems of counting and calculating.

Sight and Hearing. The educated person is skilled in listening and observing.

Health. The educated person understands the basic facts concerning health and disease.

Health Habits. The educated person protects his own health and that of his dependents.

Public Health. The educated person works to improve the health of the community.

Recreation. The educated person is participant and spectator in many sports and other pastimes.

Intellectual Interests. The educated person has mental resources for the use of leisure.

Esthetic Interests. The educated person appreciates beauty.

Character. The educated person gives responsible direction to his own life.

THE OBJECTIVES OF HUMAN RELATIONSHIP

Respect for Humanity. The educated person puts human relationships first.

⁵ *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, Washington, D. C.: Educational Policies Commission, 1938.

Friendships. The educated person enjoys a rich, sincere, and varied social life.

Cooperation. The educated person can work and play with others.

Courtesy. The educated person observes the amenities of social behavior.

Appreciation of the Home. The educated person appreciates the family as a social institution.

Conservation of the Home. The educated person conserves family ideals.

Homemaking. The educated person is skilled in homemaking.

Democracy in the Home. The educated person maintains democratic family relationships.

THE OBJECTIVES OF ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

Work. The educated producer knows the satisfaction of good workmanship.

Occupational Information. The educated producer understands the requirements and opportunities for various jobs.

Occupational Choice. The educated producer has *selected* his occupation.

Occupational Efficiency. The educated producer succeeds in his chosen vocation.

Occupational Adjustment. The educated producer maintains and improves his efficiency.

Occupational Appreciation. The educated producer appreciates the social value of his work.

Personal Economics. The educated consumer plans the economics of his own life.

Consumer Judgment. The educated consumer develops standards for guiding his expenditures.

Efficiency in Buying. The educated consumer is an informed and skillful buyer.

Consumer Protection. The educated consumer takes appropriate measures to safeguard his interests.

THE OBJECTIVES OF CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

Social Justice. The educated citizen is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstance.

Social Activity. The educated citizen acts to correct unsatisfactory conditions.

Social Understanding. The educated citizen seeks to understand social structures and social processes.

Critical Judgment. The educated citizen has defenses against propaganda.

Tolerance. The educated citizen respects honest differences of opinion.

Conservation. The educated citizen has a regard for the nation's resources.

Social Applications of Science. The educated citizen measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare.

World Citizenship. The educated citizen is a cooperating member of the world community.

Law Observance. The educated citizen respects the law.

Economic Literacy. The educated citizen is economically literate.

Political Citizenship. The educated citizen accepts his civic duties.

Devotion to Democracy. The educated citizen acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.

Education Serves the Individual and Society

In its statement, the EPC resolved the age-old controversy as to whether education should be centered in the welfare of the individual or of society, by the assertion that, "*Social progress and individual freedom interact; each is essential to the other.*" The penetrating analysis continues:

. . . The real nature of social institutions is all too easily disguised. Only in brief brilliant flashes of insight has the individual gained control over his social agencies and known them for what they are—nothing more than *systems of related human activities*. The terms "university," "church," or "state" refer to activities which individuals in certain relationships perform. They achieve a second-hand reality only through the individuals who use them to achieve some human purpose.

Yet throughout almost the whole course of history there have been those who, to further their own ambitions, would set institutions over man, their creator, reducing him to a mere social atom, meaningless outside of some institutional frame of reference. History conspires with ambition to obscure the worth of the individual. Myriads of people have labored to create vast empires, to conquer continents, to raise skyscrapers and pyramids, to establish well-defined social and

legal codes. Man's works overshadow himself, and the individual contribution to those stupendous achievements seems of little worth. It is difficult but necessary to realize that for him alone those majestic works in the physical realm were raised, for him alone, those greater cathedrals of the mental world, systems of government, economics, education, religion, and family life were lifted.

Emphasis on the liberties of the individual need not detract from the values placed upon group life; neither does it lessen the need for social objectives. A delicate balance between individual and social purposes is necessary. Society can act upon no wiser policy than to allow each of its members the freedom essential to his own capacities; this to be contingent only upon his recognition of the rights of others to the same privileges. No other factor in all history has so impeded progress as have deliberate and unnecessary restraints imposed by powerful institutions upon the freedom of the individual. Only by the attainment of full mental and spiritual maturity of each of its members can a democracy create the conditions of its own success.⁶

We may safely conclude that, although education is neither exclusively for the sake of the individual nor for the sake of society, it must of necessity center in the individual learner. The continuity, the stability, and the progress of society, as well as his own future success and happiness, depend upon the student, the potential citizen. To resort to an overused expression, "the torch of civilization must be passed on undimmed from one generation to the other." This is the *social* responsibility of the school and the *personal* responsibility of each individual.

The true task of education is to reconcile the best interests of the social group with the best interests of each member. It is the educator's role to reveal the sense of pattern and direction derived from the social heritage without destroying the critical attitude and abilities of the learner. In the words of a learned group, "A society which leaves no place for criticism of its own aims and methods by its component members has no chance to correct its errors and ailments, no chance to advance to new and better forms, and will eventually stagnate, if not die."⁷

⁶ *Policies for Education in American Democracy*, pp. 174-175.

⁷ Report of the Harvard Committee, *General Education in a Free Society*, Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1945, p. 77.

Also, "The quality of alert and aggressive individualism is essential to good citizenship; and the good society consists of individuals who are independent in outlook and think for themselves *while also willing to subordinate their individual good to the common good.*"⁸

The Harvard Committee concluded,

But the problem of combining these two aims is one of the hardest tasks facing our society. The ideal of free inquiry is a precious heritage of Western culture, yet a measure of firm belief is surely a part of the good life. A free society means toleration, which in turn comes from openness of mind. But freedom also presupposes conviction; a free choice—unless it be wholly arbitrary (and then it would not be free)—comes from belief and ultimately from principle. *A free society, then, cherishes both toleration and conviction.* Yet the two seem incompatible. If I am convinced of the truth of my views, on what grounds should I tolerate your views, which I believe to be false? The answer lies partly in my understanding of my limitations as a man. Such understanding is not only the expression of an intellectual humility but is a valid inference from the fact that wise men have made endless mistakes in the past. Furthermore, a belief which does not meet the challenge of criticism and dissent soon becomes inert, habitual, dead. . . . Yet especially with youth, which is ardent and enthusiastic, open-mindedness without belief is apt to lead to the opposite extreme of fanaticism. We can all perhaps recall young people of our acquaintance who from a position of extreme skepticism, and indeed because of that position, fell an easy prey to fanatical gospels. It seems that nature abhors an intellectual vacuum. *A measure of belief is necessary in order to preserve the quality of an open mind.* If toleration is not to become nihilism, if conviction is not to become dogmatism, if criticism is not to be cynicism, each must have something of the other.⁹

Other Educational Institutions

We should not confuse education with schooling. Schooling is a form of education, but it is not all of education. Education occurs both in and out of school. The school is only one of the recognized educational agencies of society; others are the family

⁸ *Ibid.* (Italics mine.)

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 77-78. (Italics mine.)

and home, the church, the press, the library, the motion picture, and the radio. To the above list other agencies might be added, such as service clubs, lodges, fraternities and sororities, political parties, forums, youth movements, social clubs, and so forth. It is a well-known fact that some of the best contributions of the school are negated by some of the other agencies.

As Carr points out,

The school undertakes to teach correct speaking; many homes and neighborhoods teach just the opposite. The school teaches respect for human life, safety, and happiness; many social practices (a commercialized automobile race or partial enforcement of traffic laws, for example) teach the opposite. The school teaches healthful living; the incomes available to many American families compel a low standard of living which is detrimental to health. The school praises literary excellence; outside the school children are bombarded with printed pulp which debases their speech and degrades their tastes. The school teaches respect for law and honest government; the practices of corrupt political machines teach the opposite. The school teaches temperance and moderation in all things, "nothing in excess," as the Greeks taught; unrestrained and untruthful advertising (of liquor, for example) and the sequences from some modern motion pictures teach the opposite. The school teaches democracy; some aspects of life outside, and even within the school, may negate democracy.¹⁰

Many of the charges that the school is not performing its function should be directed against the other agencies that are operating counter to the teachings of the school or failing to cooperate with it. The school draws upon itself criticism not only for what it fails to do, but for its inability to perform the legitimate functions of the other social institutions. And, as suggested, at times it finds itself at war with the non-cooperating social agencies.

The uniqueness of the school's position is that its responsibility extends to all of the areas served by the other agencies. Moreover, in some areas "the weight of education rests on the schools more exclusively than in others." With reference to the above stated objectives, the Educational Policies Commission states,

¹⁰ *Loc. cit.*, p. 258.

The role of the school is especially definite in preparing for *civic responsibility*. The school, therefore, must condition, and concern itself with, every phase of civic education. It must concern itself with loyalty to society as a whole rather than to the political manifestations of society as revealed in any single institution. Vested control of this function by the political state leads to dictatorship.

The field of *human relationship* is shared by the school, the home, and the rest of the environment. [More idealistic statements, in this connection, stress the role of the church.]

Education in the field of *self-realization* or personal development is coming to be more and more a duty of the schools although much of this responsibility necessarily inheres in the home and church.

Under modern economic and industrial conditions preparation for *economic efficiency* is largely a function of the school.¹¹

There can be no question of the importance of out-of-school education. As a matter of fact, most children spend but a small fraction of their time in school. Ordinarily, a child does not enter school until he is six years of age, unless he goes to nursery school or kindergarten. These early years, educationally speaking, are, no doubt, the most important years in an individual's life.

The average child in America now attends school about ten years. The new voter at age twenty-one, therefore, has spent more years out of school than in school. Also, it is to be noted, not one of the ten years was spent completely in school. The average school in 1942 was in session only 174 days out of the 365 days in a year. Moreover, the average child was in attendance only 149 of those days, or approximately 40 per cent of the days in the year.

The actual hours spent in school are very revealing. If the child were to attend school 200 days in the year for six hours per day—the program in the middle and higher grades—he would attend school a total of 1,200 hours. In a year of 365 days there are 8,760 hours. This fortunate child (fortunate because so few would have such an opportunity) is in attendance at school only 13.6 per cent of the time. Counting ten hours for sleep, on school days he is in school only 23.5 per

¹¹ *Policies for Education in American Democracy*, p. 190. (Arranged into paragraphs for emphasis.)

cent of the time he is awake, not counting Saturdays and Sundays. Thus, the home of the child with the maximum schooling has the responsibility of the child over three-fourths of the time he is awake (76.5 per cent). Actually, the responsibility of the home, due to illness, employment, and absence from school for other emergencies, will be considerably more than three-fourths of the time, and the responsibility of the school correspondingly less.

The home is not the educational agency it was in yesteryear. Time was when the clothing and food of the family were made in the home, when the laundry was cared for in the home, when the maintenance of utilities, such as light and heat, were the responsibilities of each household, when the furniture was made, or at least repaired, in the home. In such homes each member of the household had his share of the work, his chores, and his responsibilities. Now this type of home has passed forever from the urban areas. Fortunate is the child, educationally speaking, who still belongs to the rural home, where at least some of these activities are still carried on, in addition to the raising of crops and animals.

While the home has waned in its educational effectiveness, some other non-school agencies have increased their realm of influence. In recent years, the movies and the radio have become potent educative, or maleducative, agencies, depending upon their use. When taken into the schoolhouse and the classroom and properly used, "audio-visual aids" are all that the name implies; they pay educational dividends. When they are left under the dominance of "big-money," they defeat many of the teachings for which the school stands.

It is for this reason that many communities are now establishing "community councils," where an effort is made to coordinate the efforts of the social agencies of a given community. Voluntary councils have been established in many communities, including in their membership the representatives of such varied agencies as business clubs, chambers of commerce, churches, civic associations, day nurseries, farm bureaus, hospitals, labor unions, libraries, museums, parent-teacher associations, patriotic associations, philanthropic organizations,

professional groups, service clubs, Sunday schools, women's organizations, and the like.

Many community projects have come out of the planning of such councils. Elsewhere the present writer said,

A community project, a joint enterprise of schools, churches, clubs, and civic organizations *has a reality and a challenge that no lesser activity possesses*. It brings the youthful group (school, church, or club) into intimate contact with the adult group, making for increased understanding and appreciation on the part of both groups; it makes the young feel that their activities have social significance; it reminds the old that, after all, their responsibility is to prepare the world for on-coming generations; and it gives all participants the strength of unity.¹²

It is a foolish school administrator who ignores the other educational agencies in the community. With their aid he can move mountains, without it, he fails indeed. As has been said, "Familiarity breeds blindness as often as it breeds contempt." The White House Conference concluded,

Many children have experiences so limited that they do not recognize what is ugly . . . Children in whose lives the tares have crowded out the flowers, whose homes are bleak, whose schools are strangers to paint, whose school grounds uncarpeted by grass are refuges for weeds and debris, whose reading is the comics, whose art is the billboard rather than the sunset—cannot know that beauty is lacking unless beauty is substituted for ugliness.¹³

Unless the school supplies the leadership, the plight of the underprivileged child will rarely be recognized. Unless the school cooperates, it can never be remedied.

The Nature of Schools

There is no doubt that the school is a formal institution. No matter how we may resent its artificialities, its seclusion, its isolation from the real world, the inescapable fact is that at some stage in human life, long, long ago, the informal educa-

¹² John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*, New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, p. 357.

¹³ *White House Conference on Rural Education*, Washington, D. C.: National Education Assn., 1944, p. 125.

tion of the other agencies in the life of the child was supplemented by formal schooling. As the body of knowledge by which people lived became more complex and involved, it was no longer possible to pick it up incidentally in the home, the neighborhood, or the community. Consequently, schools were set up to teach the children what they needed to know to assume their roles in adult society. There can be no question about the matter; the formal schooling was designed primarily to teach those things that the social process itself did not adequately teach.

Traditionally, the schools have been devoted primarily to the task of teaching the fundamentals. As man invented language, the alphabet, reading, numbers, systems of exchange, tools, and instruments of precision, formal schooling became devoted more and more to acquiring a command of the fundamental processes: reading, writing, and arithmetic. Whatever else the youngster may have learned in the informal out-of-school activities, it was the school's responsibility to give him the tools of learning.

Moreover, in more primitive times it was easier than now to pick up information and skills outside of school. In fact, in the most primitive societies there is little or no conscious attempt at the education of the youth; they learn largely through imitating the activities of their elders. Even in play, they mimic their fathers and mothers. Also, knowledge about food, clothing, weapons, rituals—the whole gamut of life—comes largely through direct participation in the life of the group.

As civilized society progressed, it became more and more necessary to institute an elaborate system of formal schooling. Thus, the information that students needed as preparation for life was logically organized and systematically presented; and the students studied until they got it.

Much of the attention of educators in recent times has been devoted to the attempt to overcome some of the artificialities of the school, and to give it some of the vitality of the more informal approaches to education. Nevertheless, John Dewey's famous aphorism that education is life, not preparation for life, was found by Finney to be a very misleading and pernicious

half-truth.¹⁴ There can be no doubt that for many generations the actual learning situations in the school were far different from those outside of school. Moreover, the question still remains whether or not schooling can be made completely informal and lifelike.

The advantages of formal schooling are very apparent. If the individual were to learn everything in the natural course of events, he would learn in a lifetime only a fraction of what the formally-schooled adolescent knows. *Schools do save time for the learner.*

Formal schooling gives a person a perspective that he could not hope to get in any other way. It enables the student to extend his experiences vicariously to include events beyond the present time and beyond the immediate locality in which he lives. History and geography, the sciences, and even literature and the arts invite logical and systematic study.

The school furnishes teachers especially prepared to help the pupil learn the fundamental processes as well as the secondary and higher insights and understandings. The teachers' breadth of knowledge and their skill in teaching make it possible for the student to learn far more and far more readily than he could without formal instruction.

The school consciously selects the most educative experiences and subject matter. Through much study the educators have learned to discriminate between wheat and chaff, and to center attention on those items of most value. Thus, the school "accents the positive," stressing those aspects of the social order that are worthy of perpetuation. Also, the formal learner is, by his mere presence at school, protected from the more undesirable features of the social environment.

And the school knows how to order the experiences and subject matter in keeping with the nature and development of the learner. Through experience, the educator has learned when to confront the child with a given problem. Children without formal schooling would never learn the complexities of twentieth-century civilization.

¹⁴ Ross L. Finney, *A Sociological Philosophy of Education*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1928, p. 155.

Also, *the school is the most economical organization for learning*. It is true that a child with a tutor and the advantages of travel and firsthand observation may learn more than the child regularly enrolled in school, but the tutor will have to spend hours with him in more or less formal schooling. Now and again, any child might profit by some unusual opportunity for firsthand experience—trips and excursions, and the like—but as a general rule, the formal school is a better place for him to be. In fact, a child's social development may suffer under a tutor.

Bagley, one of the most ardent advocates of formal schooling, felt that, "The contribution of systematic schooling to general intelligence is probably equal to the combined contributions of native endowment and the informal pressures of the average school environment."¹⁵ Even Dewey, the most ardent advocate of informality, in writing of Rousseau and his theories, said, "Merely to leave everything to nature was, after all, but to negate the very idea of education; it was to trust to the accidents of circumstance."¹⁶

The advantages that have been gained by instituting formal schools do not preclude defects and abuses. As a matter of fact, considerable of the naturalness and effectiveness of education was lost the moment it was handed over to a formal institution. Nothing can be more pitiful than the children in the little red schoolhouse taught by the little-read schoolma'm. There has been a tendency to divorce schooling from the real workaday world, to make it artificial and bookish. Too much time has been spent in teaching the tools of learning without showing the student *when, how, and for what purpose* he should use them. Only by reference to the real world will a youngster learn *the when, the where, the wherefore, the whereunto, and the how much*, so necessary in our technological twentieth-century living.

Schools have unquestionably been exploited by those interested in maintaining the status quo. Schools have served un-

¹⁵ William C. Bagley, *Determinism in Education*, Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1928, rev. ed., p. 158.

¹⁶ John Dewey, *Democracy and Education*, New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916, p. 108.

duly as conservers of the social heritage; nowhere do traditions receive more emphasis than in the school room. Schools are often behind the times, absorbed in subject matter that no longer matters. Teachers, trained in a previous generation, pass on outworn and obsolete skills and knowledge. It is against these crimes of the traditional school that educational leaders have been waging war for decades.

The entire history of education is a record of progressive education and progressive educators. In fact, it is a chronicle of changes brought about by those who have been willing to depart from the traditional, not just because it was traditional, but because they sensed the needed improvement and saw that it could come only through new ways and patterns of doing things.¹⁷

Progressive Education¹⁸

Much of the emphasis in American education in recent years has been in the direction of correcting the shortcomings and evils of formal schooling. The critics have looked at the traditional school, have noted the excessive amount of *teacher-activity*, and have thereupon postulated a school in which the emphasis is upon *pupil-activity*. They have noted the *logically organized subject matter* reflecting the experiences of adults only, and have advocated *subject matter psychologically organized* in terms of the needs of children. They have noted the stress on *effort*, and substituted *interest*; they have resented the coercive *discipline*, and emphasized *freedom*. They have seen children *work*, when they should have been at *play*; they have noted children forced to attend to *remote goals*, at the neglect of their *immediate concerns*; they think too much has been made

¹⁷ The more advanced student will profit from a course in history of education, where he will see the contributions of Rousseau, Herbart, Froebel, Pestalozzi, and Herbert Spencer, as well as such American educators as Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, William T. Harris, Francis W. Parker, John Dewey, E. L. Thorndike, E. P. Cubberley, C. H. Judd, W. C. Bagley, William H. Kilpatrick, L. M. Terman, and others. For sketches of twenty-two eminent American educators, see the author's *The Philosophy of American Education*, Appendix A. See also, for the specific contributions of seventeen American educators, Norman Woelfel, *Molders of the American Mind*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1933.

¹⁸ For a more detailed and technical treatment of Progressive Education, see John T. Wahlquist, *The Philosophy of American Education*, New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1942, especially Ch. 6, p. 91f.

of *race experience*, and not enough of *pupil experience*. In short, they have criticized the subject-centered school, and advocated a child-centered school.

By now it is evident that in their zeal to correct the evils of the traditional school some few, at least those on the so-called "lunatic fringe," advocated a school with even more shortcomings and evils than were characteristic of the traditional school. It is only natural that the pendulum should swing to the other extreme. But, as Dewey observed, "There is always the danger in a new movement that in rejecting the aims and methods of that which it would supplant, it may develop its principles negatively rather than positively and constructively. Then it takes its clew in practice from that which is rejected instead of from the constructive development of its own philosophy."¹⁹

When confronted with a dilemma, there is always the temptation to grasp hold of one or the other of the horns. This is what Bagley and "the essentialists" accused Dewey and "the progressives" of doing.²⁰ Certainly, it is true that the usual teacher's institute talk for over a score of years was a tirade on the shortcomings of the traditional school, without any acknowledgment of its inherent goodness. Even on the pragmatic test, there must have been good in traditional practices, or they would not have endured so long. Nevertheless, on all sides, American educators were saying, "Whatever is, is wrong;" "Nothing can be worse than we now have;" "This is a forward-looking movement;" "Have you anything new for today?"²¹

Nevertheless, it is doubtful that many American educators would want to go back to the practices of a half-century ago before "progressive education" was talked about. The principles, if not the metaphysics, preached by John Dewey and his satellites have wide acceptance in American educational circles. In fact, it is doubtful that many of us—pupils, teachers, or

¹⁹ From John Dewey, *Experience and Education*, New York: (by permission of) The Macmillan Co., 1938, pp. 6-7.

²⁰ William C. Bagley, "An Essentialist's Platform for the Advancement of American Education," *Educational Administration and Supervision* 24:241-256 (April, 1938).

²¹ Karl C. Pratt, "Funeral Oration for the Late Progressive Educator," *School and Society* 60:76-77 (July 29, 1944).

parents—would wish to substitute *teacher imposition* for *pupil self-expression*, within reason; external *discipline*, for *freedom*, not license; lifeless *textbook recitations* for wisely pupil-teacher planned experiences; stress on the *past* for stress on the *present* and the *future*; indoctrination of the concept of a *static world* for the glorification of a changing and improving *dynamic world*. If so, we have forgotten already the lesson of World War II, Hitler and his Nazis and Mussolini and his Fascists.

Dewey has wisely observed—and Bagley would readily agree,

The problems are not even recognized, to say nothing of being solved, when it is assumed that it suffices to reject the ideas and practices of the old education and then go to the opposite extreme. Yet, I am sure that you will appreciate what is meant when I say that *many* of the newer schools tend to make little or nothing of organized subject matter of study; to proceed as if any form of direction and guidance by adults were an invasion of individual freedom, and as if the idea that education should be concerned with the present and future meant that acquaintance with the past has little or no role to play in education.²²

Dewey has been forced to temper the ardor of his followers with the reminder that not *all* experience is educative. Moreover, this is as true of the careless improvisation of “the activity school” (if permitted to drop to the level of amusement or entertainment) as it is of “the traditional school,” where the youngster was given a tool, through drill, but no desire or opportunity to use it in a life-like situation.

Dewey has always been an advocate of “education *of*, *by*, and *for* experience.” Evidently, many of his disciples missed the last preposition. Unless an experience of today leads to an even better and broader experience tomorrow, it is a poor experience. The burglar may perfect his art of burglary from day to day but, sooner or later, he will land in jail. On the other hand, the boy in even the most meagre environment may advance *progressively* from one experience to another and, ultimately, escape from, or improve, his environment.

²² John Dewey, *op. cit.*, pp. 9-10. (Italics mine.)

Dewey seems to be in full accord with Bagley's main criticism of the ultra-Progressive school; namely, that the immature learner needs the direction of an experienced, mature teacher. Dewey says,

It is then the business of the educator to see in what direction an experience is heading. There is no point in his being more mature if, instead of using his greater insight to help organize the conditions of the experience of the immature, he throws away his insight. Failure to take the moving force of an experience into account so as to judge and direct it on the ground of what it is moving into means disloyalty to the principle of experience itself. . . . The mature person, to put it in moral terms, has no right to withhold from the young on given occasions whatever capacity for sympathetic understanding his own experience has given him.²³

Of course, this does not mean that Dewey is deserting "the Progressive Camp." He is still critical of subject matter learned in isolation, in watertight compartments, so disconnected from the remainder of experience that it cannot be recalled in the hour of need. He does not believe that the traditional school gave "*genuine preparation*" for life.

Another leader of "Progressive Education" has become very critical of some of its ultra-manifestations. Boyd H. Bode thinks that the outstanding fault of Progressive Education has been the fact that it has drawn its chief inspiration from a certain sickly sentimentality about children. He reminds us,

The doctrine of interest may be interpreted in either of two ways. It may be construed to mean either that every activity must be motivated by immediate interest or that every activity must have a *recognized bearing on a way of life* which the individual accepts as his own. . . . Immediate interests, of course, are not excluded and may have great significance. But they must either be derived from or merged into the larger interest if there is to be a dependable basis for continuity of effort, without which there can be no adequate sense of responsibility and discipline of character.²⁴

He reminds us that the boy who wishes to be a farmer must learn to do the chores. It may be disagreeable to do the chores

²³ *Ibid.*, pp. 32-33.

²⁴ Boyd H. Bode, *Progressive Education at the Crossroads*, New York: Newson Co., 1938, p. 52. (*Italics mine.*)

on a cold, wintry morning, but if the farmer is to succeed, he must attend to them. "Who ever heard of a farm being run on the basis of immediate interests? Milking the cows and feeding the pigs were not projects; they were just plain chores."²⁵ Also, "It would hardly be an exaggeration to say that the purpose of sound education is precisely to emancipate the pupil from dependence on immediate interests. A person cannot remain a baby all his life."²⁶

Likewise, Bode thinks felt needs are an unreliable guide for activity; "what the old soak needs is another drink."

The insistence that we must stick uncompromisingly at all times to the "needs" of children has bred a spirit of anti-intellectualism, which is reflected in the reliance on improvising instead of long-range organization, in the overemphasis on the here and now, in the indiscriminate tirades against "subjects," in the absurdities of pupil-planning, and in the lack of continuity in the educational program.²⁷

Both Dewey and Bode are avoiding an *either-or* position in the controversy between ultra-progressives and traditionalists, radicals and reactionaries. This effort to preserve the best in the old and the new, while leaving sufficient leeway for still more experimentation, may be defined as a liberal position. Dilemmas will only be resolved by integrating the best in the conflicting lines of thought, at new and higher levels.

Much has been said about the achievement of the pupils in the more informal schools. Usually, the accuser has in mind only achievement with reference to the subject matter of the traditional school, especially the skill subjects that are most easily measured. Rarely does the critic think of the growth of the individual in his ability to meet new and more difficult situations in life, the importance in having the pupil develop powers of self-guidance and self-evaluation, or the pupil's ability to profit from past experience. Nevertheless, in a fair appraisal all of these factors and many more should be taken into consideration.

All of the controlled experiments involving the so-called "progressive practices" of the more informal school indicate that

²⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 51.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 58.

²⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 70.

the newer methods do not result in a loss of proficiency in the usual school subjects—the three R's. Moreover, the graduates of the more progressive schools do better work than the graduates of the more conventional schools in later, advanced studies. More important than their achievements in school subjects from the pragmatic premise, is the fact that the graduates of the experimental schools have a better understanding of social relationships, they practice better social relationships, discover their individual aptitudes earlier and develop them more thoroughly, are more critical thinkers, engage in more worthwhile activities inside and outside of school, and are healthier, physically and mentally.²⁸

More often than not, particularly in the war years, Progressive Education has been made the scapegoat for all the weaknesses in the social structure. In many instances where the pupils of 1946 were below standard as measured by standardized tests, there were significant factors involving other than informal school practices. Among these were the poor salaries for teachers in comparison with the incomes of other vocational groups; the opportunities afforded teachers to shift to more lucrative positions; the consequent turnover in the teaching force; the necessity of employing large numbers of substitute, emergency teachers; teachers holding down two jobs and, consequently, giving teaching only half-hearted attention; the work opportunities for mother and the neglect of children in the homes; the increased number of broken homes and abnormal home conditions; the influx of children from other school systems, oftentimes underprivileged children from states with inferior school systems.

There is little likelihood that we will ever go back to the subject-centered school of yesterday. However, there is no proof that the teachers or the school ever went overboard on "Progressive Education." It is true that most educators became more cognizant of the needs and interests of children and the

²⁸ See the studies of J. W. Wrightstone, *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*, New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. See also his *Appraisal of Experimental High School Practices*, same publisher, 1936; see also, the results of the Progressive Education Association Eight-Year Study, published by Harper & Bros., 1942, under the title *Adventures in American Education*, Vols. I-V.

necessity of making some modifications in the school program if children were to experience more normal growth and development. Also, it is true that most schools took a more forward look upon the problems of modern life and looked askance at some of our traditional ways of doing things. But, in the words of an eminent superintendent, "No sane, intelligent progressive ever advocated any neglect of the 'essentials' or the 'fundamentals.' There was a lunatic fringe of radicals who did so advocate, but the whole movement should not be condemned because of the unintelligent ballyhoo of its would-be friends or the gross misrepresentations of a sensation-seeking press."²⁹

We may safely conclude that many of the articles of faith of the progressive movement are worthy goals for American education *when they are properly interpreted*. This holds for such concepts as freedom, child-initiative, self-activity, child interests, self-expression, and personality adjustment. When tempered by the cautions supplied by Dewey and Bode, quoted above, they are safe guides for education. In the writer's opinion, what is needed is a middle-of-the-road position—call it "liberalism"—between the undesirable extremes of "traditionalism" and "progressivism."

American Education

It must be admitted by the most impartial observer that the Americans have the most enriched school curriculum found anywhere at either the elementary or secondary school level. Individual differences receive greater recognition and concern than in the schools of other countries; the American schools stress personality development and adjustment as it is not stressed anywhere else in the world; they stress sharing, co-operating, and democratic procedures to a degree not common in the schools of any other country; and, last but not least, they do prepare American youth for the inevitable changes in twentieth-century life. And, it must be admitted that all of the above are more or less indigenous to America and the teachings of its most eminent educational philosopher, John Dewey.

²⁹ John A Sexson, editorial comment, *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 20:209 (March, 1938).

Of one thing we can be sure, there will be changes in the American educational system in the future. From this distance we do not know its future forms, organizations, curricula, or methods.

We should stop arguing, for example, about the "three R's" versus "Progressive Education," and recognize that scholastic disciplines are not in themselves valuable, but are important only as a means of revealing to the student the forces that have made America the hope of the world. We must transmit to our children, as effectively as possible, standards of life that will save civilization in its years of gravest danger. We must imbue in these children an awareness of what is valuable in the past, what is important in the present, and what is promising and what is perilous in the future. Truly, "Civilization is a race between education and catastrophe."

STUDY AIDS

1. Why does the public maintain schools?
2. Prepare brief speeches on the four objectives of American education as formulated by the Educational Policies Commission.
3. Evaluate your education by the objectives proposed by the Educational Policies Commission.
4. Explain: "Social progress and individual freedom interact; each is essential to the other."
5. How can a person have "the ideal of free inquiry" and "a measure of firm belief"? (See the reference to the Harvard Committee Report.)
6. Explain: "Schooling is a form of education, but it is not all of education."
7. Compare the efficiency of the school with the efficiency of other social agencies.
8. How much responsibility should the school assume for the success or failure of any graduate?

9. What is a "community council"? If you know of one in your neighborhood, study it and make a class report.
10. Is the school a formal or an informal institution?
11. Can we eliminate all the artificialities of the school and school room?
12. What are the advantages of formal education? informal education?
13. Prepare a report on "Progressive Education."
14. What are some of the arguments *for* and *against* "Progressive Education"?
15. Should school achievement be measured only in terms of proficiency in the skill subjects?
16. Would you trade our American system of education for that of any other civilized nation? Why?

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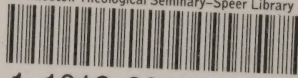
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